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ABSTRACT

The community college, its faculty, philosophy, compensatory education programs, occupational education programs, human and health services, and evaluation of occupational programs are the subjects of the six papers that comprise this book. The papers are: (1) Pennsylvania Community College Faculty: Career Patterns and Educational Issues, by Robert A. Patterson--preorganizational career patterns of the faculty in Pennsylvania community colleges are identified, and the relationship between career patterns and faculty attitudes toward educational issues is investigated; (2) Goals and Ambivalence: Faculty Values and the Community College Philosophy, by Karen L. Bloom, Angelo C. Gillie, and Larry L. Leslie--discusses the extent to which 2-year college faculty members support the mission of their institutions, or if they do not, why not; (3) Compensatory Education in Two-year Colleges, by James Morrison and Reynolds Ferrante--explains the norm of contest mobility and relates it to the concept of the public, comprehensive 2-year community college; (4) Occupational Education in Community Colleges: Today and in 1980, by Lewis R. Fibel--provides an overview of the problems and possibilities of occupational education in the community college now and in the future; (5) Statewide Planning for Delivery of Human and Health Services, by S. V. Martorana--reviews a rapidly growing area with problems common to many community colleges and postsecondary programs; and (6) Strategies for Evaluation of Postsecondary Occupational Programs, by Leland L. Medsker--discusses approaches and techniques for evaluating vocational programs, problems related thereto, and future directions. (DB)

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Insights into Higher Education: Selected Writings of CSHE, 1969-73

Volume II: Community College and Postsecondary Occupational Education

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Foreword: The Dilemma of Understanding

In their examination of academic institutes and centers, Ikenberry and Friedman refer to those worlds beyond the academic department as the organizational entity best able to "coordinate the talents of several professionals in accomplishing a single task or goal."

From its founding in 1969, the PSU Center for The Study of Higher Education has had one main task or goal—increased understanding of higher education. Its director has said: "Colleges and universities . . . have never been well understood by those who support them, i.e., the larger society. Indeed they are not always well understood by their own constituencies—students, administrators, faculty, or alumni. If they had been understood they might not be under attack."

If this is truly the state of the art, if, as has been suggested, higher education is suffering from crises of confidence (Dressel), breakdowns in belief and loyalty (Clark), and is headed toward becoming, in Kerr's terms, a quasi-public utility, then any attempt to increase understanding of these changes seems a proper concern of the Center. If pressures on higher education are increasingly external, perhaps the answers can be suggested from inside the academy itself. To this end the PSU Center has studied higher education and disseminated its findings in a continuing series of publications—reports, conference papers, and monographs—over its four-year life. A compilation such as this attempts to cull some of the thinking of Center staff on a variety of issues as well as purview one Center's areas of study.

Center personnel and professionals who have contributed papers to Center publications and conferences in the last four years have addressed themselves to several areas where the university is undergoing major shifts. This monograph collects some of their thinking on community college and postsecondary occupational education.

The original place and date of publication are indicated at the bottom of the first page of each paper.

Papers are presented as originally published except for minor editing.

Introduction

Two-year college education is a rapidly evolving segment of postsecondary education, pertinent to the immediate needs of ever-widening segments of the nation's population. In many ways and for many reasons four-year colleges and universities have failed or been unable to respond to the demands for compensatory education, retraining and updating of skills, continuing and adult education, and the needs of the increasing numbers of "new learners." These needs have been filled by the community college, junior college, technical institute, etc. These institutions and staff seek to understand their role in society.

This monograph includes two pages investigating the career patterns and faculty values of some Pennsylvania community college faculty. Two papers, one by Patterson, another by Bloom, Gillie, and Leslie, both indicate that the faculty are experiencing almost as many identity crises as their students in adapting to and defining their educational and social roles in these institutions. Their ambivalence is detrimental to the achievement of community college goals which both papers identify as:

1. Commitment to comprehensive curricula (transfer, general, occupational, part-time, and evening).
2. Service to students with wide ranges of interests, ages, and abilities.
3. Flexibility in serving the needs of the community.
4. Excellence in teaching rather than the pursuit of knowledge that characterizes the university.

Turning to another aspect of the community college, Morrison and Ferrante deal with compensatory educational programs, reviewing some of the past and present programs for the disadvantaged at a number of two-year colleges as they relate to Turner's sponsored vs. contest mobility.

In the next paper, Lewis Fibel gives an overview of the problems and possibilities of occupational education in the community college today and in 1980. One primary problem he notes is the lack of systematic data collection and concise analysis about occupational education in the community college. In addition, he discusses several of the "goals" of the community college such as its open door aspect

and seems to indicate his approval of a market model when he notes that all the goals and functions are "carried out by others, and there should ensue a healthy competition to determine which will ultimately operate most effectively and economically."

In an attempt to do what Fibel suggests, Martorana has reviewed one particular area of occupational education and community service—health care and human services—a rapidly growing area with problems common to many other community college and postsecondary programs. His eight points include:

1. The location of training for human service personnel, i.e., must all education and training of human and health care personnel take place only where there can be close conjunction with the practice of these services?
2. The need for a sharper clarification of what is meant by "Area Health Education Center."
3. The reconciliation of training for health service personnel with other education demands.
4. The need for sound, reliable data on manpower requirements for educational planning.
5. The difficulty which the growing bureaucracy at the federal governmental level presents to college and state level planners.
6. The need for careful student recruitment in the health fields.
7. The potential impact of expanding credentialing.
8. The need to recognize and provide for an ample supply of competent faculty to staff the programs proposed in a statewide plan for human and health care services.

Both Fibel and Martorana comment on the need for more appreciation and implementation of the "career ladder" concept in the community college. Martorana notes the difficulty of finding actual career fields where this ladder concept is operational. In addition, he notes drawbacks to the definition given to the career ladder and the need to redefine it.

Like Fibel, Medsker has looked at the whole world of postsecondary occupational programs. His paper traces several strategies for evaluation. He has attempted to put a vast educational world beyond the high school into some perspective and to understand one critical need in this age of accountability and input-output analysis;

i.e., how to evaluate educational systems. He indicates the need for a systems approach and the continued need for an imaginative look at evaluation.

PENNSYLVANIA COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY: CAREER PATTERNS AND EDUCATIONAL ISSUES*

Robert A. Patterson

Introduction to the Study

Organizational behavior is a function of interactions among at least three sets of variables: (a) social, institutional, and individual *values;* (b) institutional goals and *role expectations;* and (c) *individual needs and perceptions* of the work environment.

One problem confronting the administrator in institutions of higher education is to understand the perceptual base upon which institutional members act as they carry out their various tasks and role assignments. This problem is especially critical in newly emerging institutions with specifically stated goals, which are composed of faculty with a variety of occupational backgrounds.

The purpose of the present study is to examine a part of this larger problem by identifying the preorganizational career patterns of community college faculty in Pennsylvania and investigating the relationship between identified career patterns and faculty attitudes toward progressive and traditional educational issues. In this way, important insights into institutional and faculty goal conflicts and consistencies can be gained.

The College

Over the last fifty years, an egalitarian philosophy of higher education has developed in the United States. Throughout these years, attempts have been made to make the educational content of post-high school education more responsive to the changing social order. John W. Gardner aptly summarized the democratic intentions motivating these attempts:

> The traditional democratic invitation to each individual to achieve the best that is in him requires that we provide each individual with the particular kind of ed-

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*Originally CSHE Monograph No. 2, May 1971.

> ucation which will benefit him. The good society is not one that ignores individual differences but one that deals with them wisely and humanely. Our kind of society demands the maximum development of individual potentialities at every level of ability.[1]

The comprehensive community junior college has attempted to fulfill this country's desire to make higher education more responsive to social needs and to allow all individuals who wish an education beyond high school the opportunity to pursue that desire. In fact, the comprehensive community college is America's creation, designed to allow all citizens to make the most of their abilities. Its institutional goals have been designed to encompass educational objectives that recognize the limitations and needs of students and guard against forcing students to conform to some educational mold.

The President's Commission on Higher Education in 1947 described the community college by stating:

> Whatever form the community college takes, its purpose is educational service to the entire community, and this purpose requires of it a variety of functions and programs. It will provide college education for the youth of the community, so as to remove geographic and economic barriers to educational opportunity and discover and develop individual talents at low cost and easy access. But in addition the community college will serve as an active center of adult education. It will attempt to meet the total post-high school needs of the community.[2]

In describing the community college, Fields outlines five fundamental characteristics identifying the uniqueness of the institution:

a. *Democratic.* Low tuition, nonselective admission policies; geographically accessible; popularized education for the largest number of people.

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[1]John W. Gardner, *Excellence* (New York: Harper & Row, 1961), pp. 75-76.

[2]The President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, vol. 1, pp. 67-68.

b. *Comprehensive.* A wide range of students with varying abilities, aptitudes and interests; a comprehensive curriculum to meet the broad needs of such students.
c. *Community centered.* Locally supported and controlled; local resources utilized for educational purposes; services to improve the general level of the community.
d. *Dedicated to life-long education.* Educational programs for individuals of all ages and educational needs.
e. *Adaptable.* To individual differences among students; differences in communities; and the changing needs of society.[3]

Thus, the educational mission of the community college is not confined to the traditional functions of the four-year college or university. The curriculum has been designed to include transfer and two-year terminal programs, general education courses for all students and interested citizens, community service projects, and a program for the proper guidance and counseling of all students. The true nature of the community college curriculum exemplifies an interchange of educational programs and services designed to support and improve the general welfare of the community.

The Faculty

Since the curriculum has been designed to appeal to all ages of students from various socioeconomic backgrounds with diverse abilities, community colleges may often be more heterogeneous than the typical four-year institution. In light of this, the need arises for faculty who are pragmatically willing to take students from where they are and exert every effort to lift them to acceptable levels of performance. Therefore, institutional leaders often feel that a special kind of person is needed.

In addition to a thorough knowledge of the subject matter, faculty members in community colleges should place within their responsibilities and obligations a vital interest in the overall development of students, including an awareness and sympathetic understanding of the kinds of developmental problems students face in a com-

[3]Ralph R. Fields, *The Community College Movement* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962), pp. 63-95.

plex and changing society. This interest should promote an eagerness to communicate with students in the classroom as well as through student organizations and cocurricular activities.

Ideally, the community college teacher should be an educator with a student-centered orientation—one who sees education as a developmental process through mutual student-faculty interaction; one who is deeply concerned with the quality of classroom instruction; one who seeks to develop social awareness through the material being studied; and one who is committed to the educational objectives of the institution.

The Problem

Within the community college, the teaching faculty is the professional core from which institutional objectives are achieved. In an attempt to provide personnel who emulate desired faculty characteristics and who understand the democratic mission of the college, universities organized courses and higher education programs emphasizing the two-year college. By 1969, 100 programs of one kind or another were offered in various institutions.[4] These attempts, however, do not begin to meet the growing demand for instructors to fill the rapidly expanding networks of community colleges.

In the academic year 1969-70, a total of 2,250,000 students were enrolled in two-year colleges—a 15 percent increase over the 1968-1969 academic year.[5] Additionally, the Carnegie Commission predicts that community college enrollment will continue to grow rapidly throughout the 1970s.[6]

Because of this rapid growth, the supply of properly trained faculty is falling far behind the demand. Conservative estimates indi-

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[4]Win Kelly and Leslie Weber, *Teaching in the Community/Junior College* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970), p. 49.

[5]The *Chronicle of Higher Education*, February 16, 1970, p. 2.

[6]The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, *The Open-Door Colleges* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970).

cate a need for at least 100,000 additional instructors by 1975.[7] According to a research study reported in the *Phi Delta Kappan*, 426 administrators estimated their faculty needs for the 1969-70 academic year well into the thousands. In the area of technological subjects, a need for 1,496 full-time instructors and 700 part-time instructors was projected. The number of general subject instructors required was even greater, yielding an aggregate need for 2,488 full-time and 699 part-time instructors.[8] Certainly, the present oversupply of doctorates in some academic areas will relieve this shortage somewhat, but the direct and immediate results of this surplus are as yet unclear.

Faculty members are now being recruited for community colleges from all levels of education as well as from outside the educational community. A study by Edinger of 589 new junior college faculty in California in the fall of 1957 found that 46 percent were recruited from high schools and 11 percent from four-year institutions.[9] Koos points out that three-fifths of all those participating in two separate studies reported their "last previous position" to be high school teaching and one-eighth had previous experience in college or university teaching.[10]

Medsker found that more than 64 percent of the respondents in his national study had once taught at either the secondary or elementary school level.[11] Reports from Florida show that in 1964-65, of every 100 new community college teachers, 36 came from university graduate schools, 14 from colleges and universities, 27 from high

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[7] Roger H. Garrison, *Junior College Faculty: Issues and Problems* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1967), p. 5.

[8] "Recruiting Problems in Booming Junior Colleges," *Phi Delta Kappan* 51 (February 1970): 334-35.

[9] Lamar B. Johnson, *Problems of Preparing Junior College Teachers*, Report of the Statewide Conference on the Preparation of Junior College Teachers (Sacramento: State Department of Education, 1958).

[10] Leonard V. Koos, "Junior College Teachers' Background of Experience," *Junior College Journal* 18 (April 1958): 457-69.

[11] Leland Medsker, *The Junior College: Progress and Prospect* (New York: Harper & Row, 1961), p. 172.

schools, 10 from business occupations, and the remainder from miscellaneous sources.[12] The National Education Association showed that 30 percent of new junior college teachers came directly from public schools, 17 percent from college and university teaching, 24 percent from graduate schools and 11 percent from business occupations.[13]

This variance in the career backgrounds of community college faculty members indicates that a type of wholesale recruitment procedures has developed due to the rapid growth of these institutions with the single intent of filling vacancies, according to Bill Priest, past president of the American Association of Junior Colleges.[14] This trend often results in the recruitment of personnel who do not understand or support the mission of the two-year college, and it has led Blocker to conclude that faculty with various career backgrounds may display attitudes toward educational issues that do not always coincide with the role expectations set forth for community college faculty.[15]

This study has been designed to explore this issue. The basic assumption is that community college faculty may express attitudes toward education that have been influenced by the organizational values and role expectations of their previous positions.[16] Consequently, their perceptions and attitudes toward the community college faculty

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[12]Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., *This is the Community College* (New York: Houghton-Mifflin, 1968), p. 114.

[13]National Education Association, "Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1963-64 and 1964-65," Research Report, 1965-R4 Higher Education Series, Washington, D.C., April 1965, pp. 43-45.

[14]Bill Priest, "On the Threshold of Greatness," *Junior College Journal* 37 (September 1966): 7.

[15]Clyde E. Blocker, *et al.*, *The Two Year College: A Social Synthesis* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1965), p. 134.

[16]For a more detailed report of this research problem, see Robert A. Patterson, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Career Patterns of Pennsylvania Community College Teachers and Their Attitudes Toward Educational Issues," (Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, September 1970).

may be a distracting rather than contributing force to institutional effectiveness. The identification of the source of this distracting force is the matter under study here.[17] Thus, the primary objective of this study is twofold: to identify and classify the preorganizational career patterns of community college teachers;[18] and to investigate the relationship between the identified preorganizational career patterns and faculty attitudes toward progressive and traditional educational issues.

Framework for the Investigation

The basic conceptual notion behind the investigation is that an individual's past occupational career experiences will influence his expectations, perceptions, and attitudes toward a cognitive object that is related to his present occupational role. In this case the cognitive object is "attitudes toward educational issues." The thrust for pursuing this concept was gleaned from the writings of Kerlinger,[19] Blocker,[20] and Medsker.[21]

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[17] "Preorganizational career patterns" is a characterization of an individual's work experiences over some period of time and before entrance into present teaching position.

[18] "Attitudes toward educational issues" represent the dimensions of Kerlinger's Education Scale VII. Progressive attitudes are characterized by statements indicating an emphasis on problem solving, education as growth, students' interests and needs, equality and warmth in interpersonal relations, internal discipline and liberal social beliefs that emphasize education as an instrument of social change. Traditional attitudes are characterized by statements indicating an emphasis on subject matter for its own sake, impersonal superior-inferior relationships based on hierarchy, external discipline, and conservative social beliefs and preserving the status quo.

[19] Fred N. Kerlinger, "The Attitude Structure of the Individual: A Q-Study of the Educational Attitudes of Professors and Laymen," *Genetic Psychology Monographs* 53 (1956): 238-39; "Progressivism and Traditionalism: Basic Factors of Educational Attitudes," *Journal of Social Psychology* 48 (1958): 111-35.

[20] Clyde E. Blocker, *et al., The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965), pp. 134-36.

[21] Medsker, *The Junior College*, pp. 169-205.

Kerlinger found that occupational roles and role expectations are potent forces in influencing attitude and attitude structure. He hypothesized that individuals having the same or similar occupational or professional roles will hold similar attitudes toward education or educational issues. To test this notion, he used education professors, liberal arts professors, and people outside the university setting, and measured their attitudes in terms of the philosophical themes of progressivism and traditionalism. The connection between occupational roles and attitudes toward education was well supported by his findings.[22]

Kerlinger's research has an appropriate conceptual base to guide a study of community college faculty. First, his use of occupational roles as a frame of reference can be adapted to community college faculty since they are recruited from higher and lower educational levels as well as from business or industrial positions. Second, the progressive-traditional theme seems to be alive in the community college. For example, Blocker states that community colleges have faculty members who represent a conservative academic point of view and are interested in serving the academically skilled student. Then there are those who come to the institution with a liberal point of view who are challenged by the academically deficient student and willing to break the restrictions of a curriculum handed down from a four-year college. From Blocker's analysis, it seems evident that progressive and traditional attitudes are very much present among community college faculty in the forms of the defenders of the established educational order, and those who see the need for new approaches to meet new educational needs.[23]

Medsker in his study of the attitudes of faculty members toward their role in the two-year college presents a reference group theory. According to this theory, faculty may not necessarily identify directly or primarily with the particular group of which they are a member. Specifically, faculty members may identify themselves with groups outside the college and may more readily adhere to the views of another group to which they aspire to belong.[24] Medsker says:

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[22]Kerlinger, "Attitude Structure," pp. 238-239.
[23]Blocker, *The Two-Year College.*
[24]Ibid., pp. 173-74.

> The attitudes of junior college teachers may reflect the educational values or attitudes of teachers in four-year colleges and universities. Another possibility is that the relatively new and inexperienced teacher in the junior college will retain a close identity with the graduate school or department from which he recently came and thus visualize the role of the junior college in terms of graduate standards and procedures. Still another possibility is that junior college teachers who once taught in high school may retain that perspective after they transfer to junior college teaching. A junior college teacher may have many reference points; he may see himself through several different projections, each one of which may influence his thinking about the junior college.[25]

Paramount to the notions of both Kerlinger and Medsker is the socialization process. "Socialization" refers to the adoption and internalization by individuals of values, beliefs, and ways of perceiving the world that are shared by a group—in other words, the process of internalizing organizational roles.[26] When an individual makes an occupational choice he internalizes the values, attitudes, and behavior patterns characteristic of the actual occupational incumbents.

Rosenberg supports this premise by stating that an individual's work tends to affect his life by requiring him to play certain occupational roles. The individual who makes an occupational choice also commits himself to certain patterns of thought and behavior for years to come. In many cases, if the role is sufficiently internalized, it may influence his entire personality structure.[27]

In summary, Kerlinger feels that if individuals are grouped according to similar occupational roles and placed into a common working environment, the effect of the socialization process will cause them to hold similar views toward a cognitive object that is related to the profession. Similarly, Medsker believes that the socialization process causes people to develop a frame of reference toward their professional roles and that this internalized frame of reference may be carried over into their next place of employment.

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[25] Ibid., pp. 173-74.

[26] Edward E. Jones and Harold B. Gerard, *Foundations of Social Psychology* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1967), p. 76.

[27] Morris Rosenberg, *Occupations and Values* (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957), p. 13.

Career Patterns and Attitudes

Preorganizational career patterns were identified by developing a typology construct with six preorganizational career classifications: Public School (PS), Junior College (JC), Four-Year College (CO), Graduate Study (GS), Business or Industry (B & I), and Other Employment (OE).

The term "career pattern" is a developmentally oriented characterization of the work histories of individuals or groups of individuals over some period of time.[28] Hughes states that in a highly structured society a career has two aspects, the objective and the subjective. Objectively, an individual goes through a series of successions, offices, and organizational work roles. These series of work roles represent a person's career history. The subjective or internal aspects of a person's career reflect his perception of his work life, identity, and image of self. It includes the values and aspirations that interplay in every phase of an individual's career history. Thus in Hughes' terms, a career pattern can be identified as a constructed combination of the objective career history and subjective career outlook.[29]

Two questions were appropriately designed in order to elicit responses relating to career patterns. The first elicited information on the subject's objective career history. All respondents were asked to list chronologically all full-time jobs held and the number of years spent in each job using the six preorganizational classifications—public school teaching, teaching in another junior college, teaching in a four-year college, full-time graduate study, business or industrial work, and other employment. The second question was designed to evoke a subjective feeling about which employment experience most influenced the individual's attitudes toward educational issues. Given the same six preorganizational job classifications, the subjects were given the following instructions:

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[28] Charles H. Morris, "Career Patterns of Teachers," *The Teacher's Role in American Society*, Fourteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (New York: Harper Brothers, 1957), p. 247.

[29] Everett C. Hughes, *Men and Their Work* (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1958), pp. 13-65.

> Thinking over your previous work experiences, which one of the positions checked in question one do you feel had the most influence on forming your present opinions toward educational issues similar to the ones asked in this section? Place an X in front of the *one* position in your opinion which was the most influential in forming your present opinions toward education.[30]

The rationale for analyzing a respondent's career pattern was based on two considerations: first, which work experience had had the most influence on forming his attitudes toward education, and second, whether his full-time work experiences represented a "pure" history or a "mixed" history. Thus all respondents were placed in one of the six classifications according to their expressed subjective feeling and, based on their objective work history, given a pure or mixed career pattern.

It is important to note that when analyzing a respondent's work history, the researcher classified the respondent "pure" or "mixed" according to the number of different kinds of jobs held. For example, if an individual showed a history of work experiences in three different high schools, his career pattern was considered "pure" because his experience remained in one occupational area. On the other hand, if an individual taught in college, worked in industry, and then went back into teaching in a community college, he was classified as having a "mixed" career pattern. It is also important to emphasize that all respondents were initially placed into a career pattern classification according to the work experience they said most influenced their attitudes. The evaluation of each respondent's work history was a judgment made by the researcher in order to refine the classifications for purposes of analysis.

When relating the concept of attitudes to community college faculty, it is important to note that attitudes have specific social referents or specific classes[31] and they are learned through interac-

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[30]The career pattern questions appear in Part I-B of the questionnaire in Appendix B.

[31]Theodore Newcomb, *Social Psychology* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1950), p. 117.

tion with social objects and social events or situations.[32] In the course of an individual's experience with an object, he formulates a set of evaluative concepts or beliefs. These then become relevant to the goal-striving of the individual and determine what further beliefs may be formed regarding the object.[33]

The specific social referent considered in this study is attitude toward educational issues, specifically those of progressivism and traditionalism. In relation to this, Kerlinger contends that the more one studies education, educators, and patrons of education, the more one becomes convinced of a basic division in thinking that is best expressed in the notions of progressivism and traditionalism. The educator who is progressive emphasizes the importance of problem solving and sees education as a developmental process. The approach favors equality and warmth in interpersonal relations and takes into consideration students' interests and needs. Faculty holding this viewpoint tend to have liberal social beliefs and see education as an instrument for social change.[34]

The traditional educator places an emphasis on the importance of learning subject matter for its own sake. This approach places importance on superior-inferior relationships with considerable importance attached to the hierarchical nature of student-faculty relationships. Faculty holding this viewpoint tend to be conservative in their social beliefs and educate to preserve the status quo.[35]

Thus the attitudes of community college faculty toward progressive and traditional educational issues are formulated through interaction with social objects, events and situations in the everyday environment of the individual. According to Shaw and Wright, attitudes are the end product of the socialization process and they significantly influence a man's response to cultural products, other persons, and social situations.[36]

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[32]M. Sherif and C. Sherif, *An Outline of Social Psychology* (New York: Harper & Row, 1956), p. 539.

[33]Marvin E. Shaw and Jack M. Wright, *Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), pp. 1-11.

[34]Fred N. Kerlinger, "Progressivism and Traditionalism."

[35]Ibid.

[36]Shaw and Wright, *Scales for Measurement.*

Research Methodology

Kerlinger's Education Scale VII (ESVII), a 30-item, Likert-type scale with 15 progressive items and 15 traditional items, was used as the measurement inventory in this study.[37] Kerlinger's main objective for developing ESVII was to construct a relatively short but reliable instrument containing items that were "pure" measures of progressivism and traditionalism.[38] He administered ESVII to 620 teachers and graduate students in New York (N = 289) and Indiana (N = 322), and the respective reliability measures for the two groups were:[39]

	Progressive Subscale	Traditional Subscale
New York	.79	.78
Indiana	.76	.69

Kerlinger then conducted a factor analysis of ESVII. Of the 15 progressive items, 14 loaded substantially (>.40) on one factor; of the 15 traditional items, 11 loaded (>.40) on one factor. Therefore, Kerlinger states, the statistical evidence concludes a basic two-factor structure as predicted.[40]

Three reliability coefficients were computed from the Pennsylvania population—stratified reliabilities for the progressive and traditional items, and a nonstratified reliability for the total scale. The stratified reliabilities for the progressive and traditional items were .85 and .84, respectively; the total scale reliability was .85. A factor

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[37]The Education Scale VII appears in Part I of the questionnaire in Appendix B.

[38]Fred N. Kerlinger, "Manual for Education Scale VII, New York, pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed).

[39]Kerlinger states that judging from later evidence there seemed to have been something idiosyncratic about the Indiana sample. The reliabilities obtained from other studies were all substantially .80 or greater.

[40]Fred N. Kerlinger and Elazar J. Pedhzar, "Attitudes and Perceptions of Desirable Traits and Behaviors of Teachers," Project No. 5-0330, Contract No. OE.5-10-024, Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1967, pp. 62-63.

analysis extracted five factors and, of these, two were clearly dominant. Of the 15 progressive items, 14 loaded substantially (>.38) on one factor. Of the 15 traditional items, 9 loaded substantially (>.38) on one factor. Factor one represents the progressive items, and factor two, the traditional items.

In summary, the statistical analysis of Kerlinger's Education Scale VII with the Pennsylvania community college faculty population supported his previous research findings. The reliability coefficients were sufficiently high enough to use in a group testing situation. Therefore, it was concluded that ESVII appeared to be a reliable and factorially valid instrument for the purposes of this study.

The research population was taken from 10 of the 12 community colleges in Pennsylvania (see Appendix A). The individuals studied consisted of all full-time faculty who were teaching in some phase of the comprehensive curriculum. Administrators and faculty with administrative responsibility were not included in the population.

The original research population totaled 951 full-time community college teachers. Of these, 612 or 64 percent responded to the mailed questionnaire and 547 or 58 percent of the returns were usable. Each individual institution showed a response rate of over 50 percent except for one college that totaled a 47 percent return. Because of the uncertainty of minimum cell sizes—that is, numbers of respondents in each of the career categories—and the expectations of less than a 100 percent questionnaire return, no sampling was done.

Since only 64 percent of the total population responded to the questionnaire, an effort was made to compare the nature of respondents to nonrespondents through a follow-up study of randomly selected nonrespondents. A t-test was conducted in order to determine if the mean scores of the two groups were statistically different at the .05 level of confidence. The two groups were also compared on selected biographical characteristics.

The group mean of the nonrespondent sample did not differ significantly at the .05 level from the primary group in attitudes toward educational issues. A comparative analysis of the selected biographical characteristics also showed the nature of the two groups to be very similar. (See Tables 1 and 2 for a summary of the analysis.) Hence, it was concluded that there was good justification for generalizing the results derived from the primary population.

Hypotheses and Questions

The relationship between preorganizational career patterns of community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues was statistically measured through the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistically significant difference between the "subjective" preorganizational career pattern classifications of community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant difference between the "objective" career history or the number of jobs held (pure or mixed) by community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues.

Hypothesis 3: There is no statistically significant interaction between pure and mixed categories and career pattern classifications of community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues.

TABLE 1

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ESVII MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS BETWEEN RESPONDENT AND NONRESPONDENT GROUPS

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Respondent Group N = 547	116.59	14.37
Nonrespondent Group N = 32	114.03	13.25

In relation to the biographical information collected, no empirical corollary hypotheses were offered, but two research questions were asked:

Question 1: Is there a significant relationship between selected biographical characteristics of community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues?

TABLE 2

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS BETWEEN RESPONDENT AND NONRESPONDENT GROUPS

Characteristic	Respondent Group (N = 547) (percent)	Nonrespondent Group (N = 32) (percent)
Sex–Male	78	75
Age–Below 35	47	47
Married	78	81
Children–One to three	55	55
Religion–Protestant	55	59
Politics–Conservative	44	56
Father's Education–High School or less	73	78
Mother's Education–High School or less	77	72
Community–Grew up in 50,000 or less	70	72
Academic Field–Non-Science or Technical	52	41
Curriculum–Transfer Program	42	38
Rank–Instructor or Assistant	80	84
Years of Service–Three years or less	78	75
Tenure–Yes	14	19

Question 2: Can selected biographical characteristics be used as predictors of faculty attitudes toward educational issues?

The following variables were selected for analysis: age, sex, marital status, number of children, religious and political persuasion, father's occupation and education, mother's education, size of childhood community, academic field, teaching curriculum, salary, degree, and professional memberships. A factorial analysis of variance program designed to handle multiple classifications with unequal cases was used to test the statistical significance of the null hypotheses,[41] which were tested at the .05 and .01 level of significance. An omega square index was used for predicting the power of the relationship between the faculty attitudes and career pattern variables. When the analysis of variance found significant differences between treatment group means, a multiple comparisons among means program was used to discover which groups were significantly different.[42]

A Pearson product-moment correlation program was used to test the linear relationship between the biographical variables and attitudes toward educational issues.[43] The research questions were tested at the .01 level of significance and significant correlation coefficients were used to discover the best individual predictor variable of faculty attitudes toward educational issues. Multiple correlation and step-up regression procedures were used to identify combinations of biographical variables that were the best predictors of the same faculty attitudes.[44] The analysis revealed coefficients of determination for predicting the power of the relationship between the dependent and demographic variables. Finally, an analysis of covariance program was used to investigate the effects of the highest correlated demographic variables on the major independent variable, faculty career patterns.[45]

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[41] Nancy C. Daubert, ANOVUM Program, Computation Center, The Pennsylvania State University, 1969.

[42] Richard L. Kohr, CMCMP Program, Center for Cooperative Research with Schools, The Pennsylvania State University, 1969.

[43] Richard Stein, PPMCR Program, Computation Center, The Pennsylvania State University, 1970.

[44] Richard Stein, VPREG Program, Computation Center, The Pennsylvania State University, 1968.

[45] Richard Craig, COV Program, Computation Center, The Pennsylvania State University, 1963.

The Findings

It may be remembered that in this study all respondents were placed in a career pattern classification according to their preorganizational career experience that had the most influence on forming their attitudes toward the educational issues. Over 50 percent of the community college faculty fell into two classifications—Public School, 36 percent, and Business or Industry, 21 percent. Faculty responses to the remaining four classifications showed the following order: Graduate Study, 16 percent; Junior College, 13 percent; Other Employment, 8 percent; and Four-Year College, 6 percent.

Within the six career pattern classifications, all respondents were categorized "pure" or "mixed" according to the number of different kinds of jobs held before entrance into their present positions. The analysis showed that across the six career pattern classifications, 54 percent of the faculty fell into the "mixed" category and 46 percent into the "pure" category. Also within each individual career pattern classification there was a higher proportion of "mixed" career experiences. Table 3 presents the complete career pattern analysis.

Career Patterns

Hypothesis 1: There are no statistically significant differences between the "subjective" preorganizational career pattern classifications of community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues.

Attitude group mean scores[46] were computed for the six career pattern groups. A one-way analysis of variance between the six career pattern mean scores revealed an *F*-ratio that was significant at the .01 level of confidence. (See analysis of variance summary, Table 5.) The group means are presented in Table 4.

The statistical relationship between the dependent variable—attitudes toward educational issues—and the independent variable—faculty career patterns—was estimated by calculation of the omega square value. In this instance, the calculation showed that six percent of the variance in the faculty attitudes variable was accounted for by

[46] All scores represent standard scores with a population mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.

TABLE 3

ANALYSIS OF PREORGANIZATIONAL CAREER PATTERNS

Career Pattern Classifications	Faculty with Pure Career Patterns		Faculty with Mixed Career Patterns		Combined Faculty Career Patterns	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Public School	91	37	108	37	199	36
Junior College	33	13	40	14	73	13
Four-Year College	16	06	19	06	35	06
Graduate Study	41	16	48	16	89	16
Business or Industry	50	20	58	20	108	21
Other Employment	20	08	23	07	43	08
TOTAL	251	100	296	100	547	100

the career patterns variable.[47] Therefore, it was implied that although a significant variation did exist between the attitudes of community college faculty in the six career pattern groups the predictive power of the association was modest, but approximated typical educational research findings.[48]

In order to discover which groups were significantly different, Dunn's test of multiple comparison between group mean scores was performed at the .01 level of significance. The test of comparison between group means showed that attitudes of community college faculty with the Graduate Study career pattern were significantly more progressive than faculty with either the Business or Industry,

[47]The omega square (ω^2) analysis was performed from the information contained in the analysis of variance summary Table 5.

$$\omega^2 = \frac{\text{SS between} - (J-1)\,\text{MS within}}{\text{SS total} + \text{MS within}}$$

[48]Omega square values below 5 percent are in the majority in educational psychology research.

or Public School career patterns. Also, the attitudes of community college faculty with the Four-Year College career pattern were significantly more progressive than faculty with a career pattern representing Business or Industry. Therefore, in three cases the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant difference between the "objective" career history or the number of jobs held (pure or mixed) by community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues.

Attitude group mean scores were computed for the pure and mixed career pattern categories. A t-test was then conducted to measure attitude differences between the two groups. The analysis showed that the mean differences for the pure and mixed career pattern groups was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. (See analysis of variance summary Table 5.) Therefore, in this case the null hypothesis was retained. The attitudes of community college faculty toward the educational issues do not vary when considering number of jobs held.

Hypothesis 3: There is no statistically significant interaction between pure and mixed categories and career pattern classifications of community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues.

A two-by-six factorial analysis of variance was conducted between the mean scores of the pure and mixed categories and the six career pattern groups.[49] The analysis computed an F-ratio that was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. (See analysis of variance summary Table 5.) The factorial analysis of variance indicated that variation in attitudes did not exist when the number of jobs held was combined with a person's career pattern classification. Therefore, in this case the null hypothesis was retained.

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[49]Since the career pattern groups were of unequal cases, the statistical program performed a Bertlett's test of homogeneity of variance. The results showed that any differences among the groups was a function of the treatment effects rather than of population differences based on sampling. With 11 degrees of freedom, the chi square was 10.960 and the probability equaled .4465.

TABLE 4

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CAREER PATTERN GROUPS ON ESVII*

Career Pattern	N	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Graduate Study	89	54.6	10.4
Four-Year College	35	52.8	8.5
Other Employment	43	50.5	10.6
Junior College	73	50.3	10.0
Public School	199	49.2	9.6
Business or Industry	108	46.2	8.9

*Scores are reported as standard scores with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.

TABLE 5

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	df	*F*-Ratio
Pure-Mixed Categories	24.34	24.34	1	0.265[a]
Career Pattern Classifications	2697.99	539.59	5	5.870[b]
Interaction	913.08	182.61	5	1.987[a]
Error	49177.40	91.92	535	

[a]Not significant
[b]Significant at .01

Biographical Characteristics

Research Question 1: Is there a significant relationship between other selected biographical characteristics of community college faculty and their attitudes toward educational issues?

In order to measure the relationship between the selected biographical variables and the dependent variable, zero order correlations were computed at the .01 level of significance. A coefficient of ±.110 was required. (The low correlation required for significance is, of course, a function of the large sample size and should be interpreted accordingly.) The analysis showed that for 10 of the 15 variables there was a significant relationship at the .01 level.

According to the analysis, a faculty member with progressive attitudes toward educational issues can be characterized as follows: a young female with a small family; non-Protestant with liberal political views and a father with a high degree of education; most likely teaching in the social sciences or humanities rather than the sciences or technical areas; in a college-transfer program as opposed to a vocational-technical program; with an advanced degree and belonging to one or more professional organizations related to higher education such as the American Association of University Professors, The American Association of Higher Education, the National Faculty Association for Community Junior Colleges or the American Federation of Teachers. (For correlation coefficients see Table 6.)

Research Question 2: Can selected biographical variables be used as predictors of faculty attitudes toward educational issues?

As discussed above, of the 15 biographical variables, 10 correlated statistically significant at the .01 level and had coefficients that ranged from −.113 to .330. The variable of academic field (r = .330) had the highest correlation with the faculty attitude variable. The amount of variance accounted for by this correlation was 10.8 percent (r^2 = .108) of the variance. This indicated that a faculty member's academic field was the strongest predictor of attitudes toward the educational issues.

The variable age (r = −.295) had the next highest correlation with the dependent variable. The amount of variance accounted for

TABLE 6

ZERO-ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN SELECT BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATIONAL ISSUES

Variable	Correlation Coefficient
Academic Field	.330*
Age	−.295*
Degree	.208*
Teaching Curriculum	−.233*
Political Persuasion	.200*
Father's Education	.147*
Professional Membership	−.145*
Religious Persuasion	−.137*
Sex	.121*
Number of Children	−.113*
Marital Status	−.104
Mother's Education	.095
Childhood Community	.041
Ranks	.022
Salary	.014

*Correlation coefficient significant at the .01 level ($r = \pm.110$).

by this correlation was 8.7 percent ($r^2 = .087$) of the variance. In general, the eight remaining significant variables were of less value in predicting faculty attitudes toward educational issues. (The coefficients of determination for the 10 significant variables are presented in Table 7.)

A multiple regression analysis was also performed to discover if the predictive power of all 15 biographical variables—including the five not found significant—could be improved by considering them together. The highest correlated biographical variable with the faculty

TABLE 7

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AND COEFFICIENTS OF DETERMINATION BETWEEN SIGNIFICANT BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATIONAL ISSUES

Variable	Correlation Coefficient	Coefficient of Determination
Academic Field	.330	.108
Age	−.295	.067
Degree	.268	.071
Teaching Curriculum	−.233	.054
Political Persuasion	.200	.040
Father's Education	.147	.021
Professional Affiliation	−.145	.021
Religious Persuasion	−.137	.018
Sex	.121	.014
Number of Children	−.113	.012

attitude variable and the first to enter the regression equation was a faculty member's academic field. The correlation coefficient was .33 and the fraction of explained variance amounted to 10 percent. Of the remaining 14 variables, 6 entered the regression analysis: age, degree, professional membership, sex, politics, and father's education. For these six variables plus academic field, the multiple correlation coefficient was .48, which accounted for 23 percent of the variance.

The regression analysis terminated after the seventh step because the addition of the remaining variables failed to significantly increase the multiple correlation coefficient. From these findings, it was concluded that the biographical variables were limited in their collective ability to predict community college faculty attitudes toward educational issues. Table 8 presents a summary of the findings.

The correlational findings associated with the secondary research questions motivated one additional analysis. Of the 15 bio-

TABLE 8

MULTIPLE REGRESSION CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AND COEFFICIENTS OF DETERMINATION BETWEEN SELECTED BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATIONAL ISSUES

Biographical Variables	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Coefficient of Determination (r^2)
Academic Field	.33	.10
Age	.40	.16
Degree	.43	.18
Professional Affiliation	.44	.20
Sex	.46	.21
Politics	[illegible]	.22
Father's Education	.48	.23

graphical variables, academic field and age had the highest correlation with faculty attitudes toward educational issues. It was also noted that there were distinct differences in the academic fields and ages of two career pattern groups. Community college faculty in the Graduate Study career groups who were the most progressive in their attitudes proved to be the youngest group of faculty with 54 percent below 30. Sixty-six percent of them also taught in the social sciences, humanities and related areas. Faculty in the Business or Industry career groups who were the most traditional in their attitude pattern had 53 percent above 39 years or age and were the oldest group of faculty. Sixty-five percent taught in the vocational, natural science and related areas. Because of these findings it was advisable to investigate the independence of these two variables from the major independent variables—preorganizational career patterns of community college faculty. The question was asked: Are faculty attitudes toward educational issues influenced by career patterns or do a person's academic field and age confound the relationship between career patterns and faculty attitudes?

TABLE 9

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE SUMMARY FOR ACADEMIC FIELD AND CAREER PATTERNS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	df	*F*-Ratio
Between Groups	2304.18	460.83	5	5.39*
Within Groups	46141.23	85.44	540	
Total	48445.41		545	

*Significant at .01.

TABLE 10

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE SUMMARY FOR AGE AND CAREER PATTERNS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	df	*F*-Ratio
Between Groups	2258.80	451.76	5	5.12*
Within Groups	47470.75	88.07	540	
Total	49729.55		545	

*Significant at .01.

An analysis of covariance program disclosed that the academic field and age were independent of career patterns. The analysis produced *F*-ratios that were significant at the .01 level. The *F*-ratio for the covariance analysis with academic field was 5.39. An omega square index showed that when academic field was held constant, career pattern accounted for four percent of the variance in the academic field variable. The *F*-ratio for the covariance analysis with age was 5.12, and again an omega square index showed that the career pattern variable accounted for only four percent of the variance in the age variable. The analysis of covariance summaries is presented in Tables 9 and 10.

Thus, the analysis of covariance revealed that the variables academic field and age were not confounding the relationship between the career patterns and faculty attitudes. The results from these findings give added support to the major and earlier findings of this investigation that preorganizational career patterns of community college faculty are significant but limited predictors of attitudes toward progressive and traditional educational issues.

Career Patterns and Attitudes—A Significant Relationship

In the past few years, there have been many efforts to describe community college administrators, faculty, and students with demographic data and with select criteria relating to the educational mission of the community college. Although it is important to have descriptive information about the nature of community college administrators, faculty, and students and to know their attitudes toward specific institutional roles, it seems to be of equal importance to have an understanding of the axiological base (values toward educational issues) from which they approach their professional duties.

As stated in the introduction to this study, one problem confronting the collegiate administrator is a general lack of knowledge about the perceptual base upon which faculty members act as they carry out their role assignments. Community colleges are especially sensitive to this problem.

Because of their educational mission toward the development of a comprehensive curriculum and the demand to fill vacancies in a dynamically expanding system of new institutions, community colleges must recruit faculty from all levels of the education profession as well as from business and industry. This diversity in recruitment has generated considerable concern among community college leaders who believe that previous work experiences exert a major influence on personal attitude patterns. Consequently, the attitudes toward educational issues that faculty members bring with them into the community college may be as diverse as their career experiences. If the community college is to be successful in helping faculty translate their philosophy, objectives, and programs into meaningful action, a clearer understanding of the existing attitude patterns of faculty with various career experiences is needed.

This study approached the issue by identifying the prior career experiences that faculty felt had the greatest influence on forming their attitudes toward education. The study then set out to determine the relationship between the identified career experiences and attitudes toward educational issues.

Analysis of preorganizational career experiences showed that 57 percent of the community college faculty in Pennsylvania fell into two of six classifications—36 percent in the Public School classification and 21 percent in the Business or Industry classification. Faculty responses to the remaining four career classifications show the following order: Graduate Study, 16 percent; Junior College, 13 percent; Other Employment, 8 percent; and Four-Year College, 6 percent.

It is interesting to note that the career experiences of the Pennsylvania community college faculty proved to be as diverse as those in other states, with the majority of faculty having a high school teaching background, and a low percentage coming from college and university teaching careers. (The social-psychological reasons why high school teachers are more inclined to move toward the community college teaching environment than faculty from four-year collegiate institutions are discussed by Norman L. Friedman[50] in his interesting study of the career stages and role decisions of community college teachers.)

Statistical analysis between the preorganizational career experiences of Pennsylvania community college faculty and their attitudes toward progressive and traditional educational issues showed significant differences. Faculty with different career experiences did exhibit different attitudes toward educational issues.

Community college faculty who felt their Graduate Study career experience[51] had the greatest influence on forming their attitudes toward educational issues were significantly more progressive in their attitudes than faculty with Public School or Business or In-

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[50]Norman L. Friedman, "Career Stages and Organizational Role Decisions of Teachers in Two Public Junior Colleges," *Sociology of Education* (December 1965): 231-45.

[51]Full-time graduate study was treated as a career experience since it is considered as a necessary step to the collegiate teaching profession and since some faculty had never held a previous assignment.

dustry career experiences. Also, faculty with Four-Year College career experiences were significantly more progressive in their attitudes than faculty members with a Business or Industry career experience. All findings were statistically significant at the .01 level.

The investigation found that 10 other faculty characteristics also correlated significantly with attitudes including academic field, age, degree, teaching curriculum, political persuasion, father's education, professional membership, religious persuasion, sex, and number of children. Interpretation showed that community college faculty who were young, female, with small families, of a non-Protestant religious persuasion and with liberal political views tended to be more progressive in their attitudes toward the educational issues. They were also from families with well-educated fathers, had pursued graduate work, taught social sciences or humanities courses in the college transfer program, and belonged to a national higher education organization.

Although these 10 faculty characteristics correlated significantly with attitudes, further statistical analysis showed that faculty career experiences proved to be the best and most significant single predictor of these attitudes. These findings added support to and reinforced the notion that an individual's previous employment experience is a powerful factor in developing attitudes that will carry over into a new working environment.

Since community college faculty with certain career experiences seem to express significantly different attitudes toward educational issues, what practical use can be derived from the findings? Over the last fifty years, community colleges have made attempts to develop a comprehensive curriculum projecting a progressive approach to education. The curricular fields of study were designed to appeal to students with diverse abilities, interests, and needs from various socioeconomic backgrounds. Recognizing that the typical collegiate homogenity of students was not present, community colleges felt that the best faculty member was one who was pragmatically willing to take students from where they were and to help them achieve acceptable levels of performance. Consequently, this type of faculty member needed to have a vital interest in the usefulness of creating a classroom atmosphere designed for personal as well as academic development. The community college therefore projected faculty role

expectations that placed a premium on the importance and need to approach subject matter from a developmental point of view.

From the findings of this study, it appears that faculty members in the Graduate Study and Four-Year College career pattern groups expressed attitudes toward educational issues that had the strongest congruence with faculty role expectations set forth by the community college. These faculty members agreed with issues that reflected upon education as a growth and problem-solving process based on the interest and needs of students, and they expressed concern for interpersonal relations and change through mutual interaction. Yet, faculty in these two groups represented only 22 percent of the population.

Faculty in the Public School and Business or Industry career groups were significantly more traditional in their responses to the educational issues. They felt the mastery of academic material to be more important than the pragmatic problem-solving approach. Their view of education tended to be more narrow with a lack of interest in personal development. The hierarchical position of the teacher was also thought more important than mutual respect and interaction. Faculty in these two groups represented 57 percent of the population.

As stated earlier, community college administrators are concerned about the consistency between educational attitudes of faculty and educational objectives of the institution, since these attitudes could prove to be a distracting rather than contributing force to the achievement of objectives.

In this study, community college faculty were asked to respond to issues that represented a personal commitment to broad educational ideas, ideas that would pervade a teacher's classroom behavior no matter what kind of a school he found himself in. The significance rests in the way faculty members responded to issues that related to the nature of teaching: The manner in which subject matter should be presented, the attention given to the needs and interests of students, and the role of education in today's society. All have a direct influence on the achievement of the progressive educational aims and objectives of the community college. Yet, the kinds of faculty members holding progressive philosophies on these questions could quite possibly not be in the majority in a given institution. There may be a conflict between the actual teaching taking place in classrooms and the learning environment community colleges desire.

Careful selection of faculty is most important to the educational mission of community colleges according to a report by the Pennsylvania Department of Education,[52] and the findings of this study add a note of support for this statement. Since career experiences of faculty proved to be the best predictor of educational attitudes, community college leaders must begin to show a greater concern for recruitment of progressively minded faculty.

This may not be an easy task. The career change from public school teaching to community college teaching is a natural step up the ladder of professional advancement. Consequently, the personnel from public schools tend to gravitate toward community colleges. The same holds true for people from the business and industrial areas. If they want to enter the teaching profession, the needs of the comprehensive curriculum allow them to find appropriate positions. In other words, there is a natural career movement for people from these two areas to seek out the community colleges in order to enter the collegiate world of teaching. Because of this, and what has been found about their expressed attitudes toward education, the community colleges must begin to show a certain degree of caution in recruitment in the years ahead and efforts should be made to improve the career patterns mix of the community college faculty. Community colleges must begin to actively seek out the kinds of faculty characterized by the stated philosophy of the community college.

Thus, the future calls for community college administrators to develop closer contacts with the sources of potential faculty members. They must begin to seek out the new instructor who sees teaching as his main objective. Community colleges must also make known to the graduate schools the kinds of faculty they are seeking. With the present overproduction of Ph.D.s, the graduate schools themselves already have seen the need to change their emphasis from research preparation to greater emphasis on classroom instruction. The same holds true for many faculty in four-year colleges and universities. Traditionally, faculty from four-year institutions have looked unfavorably upon the two-year college as a step down in professional develop-

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52 Elwood A. Shoemaker, ed., "Report on Selected Data—Historical and Statistical—Related to the Development of Community Colleges in Pennsylvania (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Department of Education, 1969).

ment. Again, the present state of the academic marketplace may cause this attitude to become a myth of the past.

In the final analysis, community colleges must increase their efforts to actively recruit faculty members from graduate schools and four-year institutions, and rely less on recruits from the immediate area. In this way, their institutional objectives can best be achieved with faculty recruits who display educational attitudes congruent with the colleges' stated educational mission.

In summary, community college faculty members are seen as the prime movers for achievement of institutional goals and there is little doubt that the objectives of the community colleges in Pennsylvania, as well as other states, will be reflected and achieved through improved instruction. The findings from this investigation have pointed out that there is more to the achievement of educational goals than a mere agreement that they are appropriate to the educational needs of the times. The commitment must come alive through the basic philosophies and life styles of the faculty who attend to the classrooms.

APPENDIX A:

Pennsylvania Community Colleges

Participating Colleges:

Bucks County Community College
Swamp Road
Newtown, Pennsylvania 18940

Butler County Community College
College Drive, Oak Hills
Butler, Pennsylvania 16001

Community College of Allegheny County
711 Allegheny Building
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15219

Community College of Beaver County
609-615 Third Avenue
Freedom, Pennsylvania 15042

Community College of Delaware County
Baltimore Pike and Thornton Road
Media, Pennsylvania 19063

Harrisburg Area Community College
3300 Cameron Street Road
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania 17110

Lehigh County Community College
2370 Main Street
Schnecksville, Pennsylvania 18078

Luzerne County Community College
19-21 North River Street
Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania 18702

Northampton County Area Community College
3825 Green Pond Road
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18017

Williamsport Area Community College
1005 West Third Street
Williamsport, Pennsylvania 17701

Nonparticipating Colleges:

Community College of Philadelphia
34 South Eleventh Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107

Montgomery County Community College
612 Fayette Street
Conshohocken, Pennsylvania 19428

APPENDIX B:

The Community College Faculty in Pennsylvania
October 1969
A Research Questionnaire

Instructions: Given below are thirty statements on educational ideas and problems about which we all have beliefs, opinions, and attitudes. We all think differently about such matters, and this scale is an attempt to let you express your beliefs and opinions.

Please circle the response to the right of the statement which best describes your reaction to the statement.

Agree Very Strongly	Agree Strongly	Agree	Disagree	Disagree Strongly	Disagree Very Strongly
AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS

Example: Education is in a time of stress.	AVS	(AS)	A	D	DS	DVS
1. Learning is essentially a process of increasing one's store of information about the various fields of knowledge.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
2. The curriculum consists of subject matter to be learned and skills to be acquired.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
3. The learning of proper attitudes is often more important than the learning of subject matter.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
4. It is more important that the child learn how to approach and solve problems than it is for him to master the subject matter of the curriculum.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
5. The true view of education is arranging learning so that the child gradually builds up a storehouse of knowledge that he can use in the future.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
6. What is needed in the modern classroom is a revival of the authority of the teacher.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
7. Teachers should keep in mind that pupils have to be made to work.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
8. Schools of today are neglecting the three Rs.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
9. Standards of work should not be the same for all pupils; they should vary with the pupil.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS

10.	The goals of education should be dictated by children's interests and needs, as well as by the demands of society.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
11.	Each subject and activity should be aimed at developing a particular part of the child's makeup: physical, intellectual, social, moral, or spiritual.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
12.	Right from the very first grade, teachers must teach the child at his own level and not at the level of the grade he is in.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
13.	Teachers need to be guided in what they are to teach. No individual teacher can be permitted to do as he wishes, especially when it comes to teaching children.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
14.	Learning experiences organized around life experiences rather than around subjects are desirable in our schools.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
15.	We should fit the curriculum to the child and not the child to the curriculum.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
16.	Subjects that sharpen the mind, like mathematics and foreign languages, need greater emphasis in the public school curriculum.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
17.	Since life is essentially a struggle, education should emphasize competition and the fair competitive spirit.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
18.	The healthy interaction of pupils one with another is just as important in school as the learning of subject matter.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
19.	The organization of instruction and learning must be centered on universal ideas and truths if education is to be more than passing fads and fancies.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
20.	The curriculum should contain an orderly arrangement of subjects that represent the best of our cultural heritage.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
21.	True discipline springs from interest, motivation, and involvement in live problems.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS

22.	Emotional development and social development are as important in the evaluation of pupil progress as academic achievement.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
23.	Education and educational institutions must be sources of new social ideas.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
24.	Children should be taught that all problems should be subjected to critical and objective scrutiny, including religious, moral, economic, and social problems.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
25.	One of the big difficulties with modern schools is that discipline is often sacrificed to the interests of children.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
26.	Teachers should encourage pupils to study and criticize our own and other economic systems and practices.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
27.	Children need and should have more supervision and discipline than they usually get.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
28.	Schools should teach children dependence on higher moral values.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
29.	The public school should take an active part in stimulating social change.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS
30.	Learning is experimental; the child should be taught to test alternatives before accepting any of them.	AVS	AS	A	D	DS	DVS

PART I-B

1. Using the descriptive classifications below, consider all previous full-time jobs (excluding part-time work and summer graduate study) you have held since receiving your baccalaureate degree.

   a. In the first column, write the number of years position was held.

   b. In the second column, rank the position 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc., from the first held since receiving your baccalaureate degree to the last one previous to joining the staff of your present institution.

   c. If none of the classifications suit your major career background please check OTHER and describe.

   The following example is provided as a guide:

Position	Number of Years	Order
Teaching in High School	8 yrs.	2nd
Teaching in Another Two-Year College	–	–
Teaching in a Four-Year College	–	–
Graduate Student (only if full-time for a year or more)	1 yr.	3rd
Worked in Business or Industry	–	–
Full-time Housewife	4 yrs.	1st
Other (Describe): _____	–	–

	Your Response	Your Response
POSITION		
Teaching in High School	_____	_____
Teaching in Another Two-Year College	_____	_____
Teaching in a Four-Year College	_____	_____
Graduate Student (only if full-time for a year or more)	_____	_____
Worked in Business or Industry	_____	_____
Military Service	_____	_____
Full-time Housewife	_____	_____
Other (Describe): _____	_____	_____

BE SURE YOU HAVE AT LEAST ONE RESPONSE
IN EACH OF THE TWO COLUMNS

2. Thinking over your previous work experience, which one of the positions checked above do you feel had the most influence on forming your present opinions toward educational issues similar to the ones asked above? Place an X in front of the one position in your opinion which was the most influential in forming your present opinoins toward education.

_____ Teaching in High School
_____ Teaching in Another Two-Year College
_____ Teaching in a Four-Year College
_____ Graduate Student (only if full-time for a year or more)
_____ Working in Business or Industry
_____ Military Service
_____ Full-time Housewife
_____ Other (Describe): _____

PART II

BIOGRAPHICAL AND CAREER INFORMATION

For each item please check (√) the response which correctly describes you, or answer the question asked. Please respond to all items.

Example: I enjoy college teaching.

____ 1. Yes
____ 2. No

1. Are you a full-time employee at this community college?
   ____ 1. Yes
   ____ 2. No

2. Are you a member of the administrative staff? If yes, how much time do you devote to administrative duties?
   ____ 1. 1/4 time
   ____ 2. 1/2 time
   ____ 3. 3/4 time
   ____ 4. full-time

3. Age
   ____ 1. 20-24 years
   ____ 2. 25-29 years
   ____ 3. 30-34 years
   ____ 4. 35-39 years
   ____ 5. 40-44 years
   ____ 6. 45-49 years
   ____ 7. 50 years or older

4. Sex
   ____ 1. Male
   ____ 2. Female

5. Marital status
   ____ 1. Single
   ____ 2. Divorced
   ____ 3. Widowed
   ____ 4. Married

6. Number of children
   ____ 1. No children
   ____ 2. One child
   ____ 3. Two children
   ____ 4. Three children
   ____ 5. Four children
   ____ 6. Five children
   ____ 7. Six or more children

7. Religious preference
   ____ 1. Jewish
   ____ 2. Catholic
   ____ 3. Protestant
   ____ 4. Other (State: _____)
   ____ 5. None

8. Political preference
   ____ 1. Republican
   ____ 2. Independent
   ____ 3. Democrat
   ____ 4. Socialist
   ____ 5. Other (State: _____)

9. Birthplace
   ____ 1. Pennsylvania
   ____ 2. Other state (Specify: _____)
   ____ 3. Foreign country (Specify: _____)

10. Was your father born in the United States?
   ____ 1. Yes
   ____ 2. No
   ____ 3. Unknown

11. Was your mother born in the United States?
   ____ 1. Yes
   ____ 2. No
   ____ 3. Unknown

12. Did your father ever belong to a labor union?
   ____ 1. Yes
   ____ 2. No
   ____ 3. Unknown

13. What was your father's primary occupation?

14. Father's schooling (check highest level he attended)
   ____ 1. Grade school
   ____ 2. High school
   ____ 3. Junior college
   ____ 4. College
   ____ 5. Graduate school
   ____ 6. Other

15. Mother's schooling (check highest level she attended)
   ____ 1. Grade school
   ____ 2. High school
   ____ 3. Junior college
   ____ 4. College
   ____ 5. Graduate school
   ____ 6. Other

16. In which type community did you live while growing up?
   ____ 1. Rural
   ____ 2. Town (less than 10,000)
   ____ 3. Small city (10,000 to 49,999)
   ____ 4. Large city (50,000 to 1 million)
   ____ 5. Metropolitan (over 1 million)

17. In which academic area do you teach?
    ____ 1. Vocational-Technical
    ____ 2. Humanities and Fine Arts
    ____ 3. Social Sciences and Behavioral Sciences
    ____ 4. Education
    ____ 5. Business Administration
    ____ 6. Natural Sciences
    ____ 7. Other (State: _____)

18. The major portion of the courses you teach apply to what part of the curriculum?
    ____ 1. College transfer
    ____ 2. Vocational-Technical
    ____ 3. Both
    ____ 4. Other (State: _____ _____)

19. How many years have you been employed by your current institution? This is the beginning of my:
    ____ 1. First year
    ____ 2. Second year
    ____ 3. Third year
    ____ 4. Fourth year
    ____ 5. Fifth year
    ____ 6. Sixth year or more

20. Do you have tenure status?
    ____ 1. Yes
    ____ 2. No

21. Rank as of 1968-69 academic year:
    ____ 1. None-college does not have academic rank
    ____ 2. Instructor
    ____ 3. Assistant Professor
    ____ 4. Associate Professor
    ____ 5. Professor
    ____ 6. Other (please specify)

22. What is your present salary range?
    ____ 1. Less than $7,000
    ____ 2. $7,000 to $7,999
    ____ 3. $8,000 to $8,999
    ____ 4. $9,000 to $9,999
    ____ 5. $10,000 to $10,999
    ____ 6. $11,000 to $11,999
    ____ 7. $12,000 to $12,999
    ____ 8. $13,000 or above

23. Check the organizations in which you currently hold membership.
    ____ 1. American Association of University Professors
    ____ 2. American Association of Higher Education
    ____ 3. National Education Association
    ____ 4. National Faculty Association for Community and Junior Colleges
    ____ 5. American Federation of Teachers
    ____ 6. United Federation of Teachers
    ____ 7. AFL-CIO
    ____ 8. State or local association representing faculty in collective negotiations (other than those listed above)
    ____ 9. Other (Specify: _____)

24. Check the organizations in which you held membership prior to assuming your present position.
    - ____ 1. American Association of University Professors
    - ____ 2. American Association of Higher Education
    - ____ 3. National Education Association
    - ____ 4. National Faculty Association for Community and Junior Colleges
    - ____ 5. American Federation of Teachers
    - ____ 6. United Federation of Teachers
    - ____ 7. AFL-CIO
    - ____ 8. State or local association representing faculty in collective negotiations (other than those listed above)
    - ____ 9. Other (Specify: _____)

25. Would you join a local faculty organization engaged in collective negotiations?
    - ____ 1. Yes
    - ____ 2. No
    - ____ 3. Uncertain

26. Please check the expression below which best describes your present attitude toward community junior college teaching as a career.
    - ____ 1. Very dissatisfied
    - ____ 2. Dissatisfied
    - ____ 3. Indifferent
    - ____ 4. Satisfied
    - ____ 5. Very satisfied

27. Do you think you would again choose to work in a community junior college if you could remake your decision?
    - ____ 1. Yes
    - ____ 2. No
    - ____ 3. Uncertain

    If not, which field would you choose?

28. In which type of educational institution were you awarded your baccalaureate degree? (If you attended a junior college, you will have two responses.)
    - ____ 1. Junior College
    - ____ 2. Private Four-Year Liberal Arts College
    - ____ 3. Private University
    - ____ 4. State-Related College
    - ____ 5. State-Related University
    - ____ 6. Other

29. Are you presently working toward an advanced degree?
    - ____ 1. Yes
        - ____ Bachelor's Degree
        - ____ Master's Degree
        - ____ Doctor's Degree
    - ____ 2. No

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GOALS AND AMBIVALENCE: FACULTY VALUES AND THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE PHILOSOPHY*

Karen L. Bloom
Angelo C. Gillie
Larry L. Leslie

The Community's College

The two-year college** is the college of the community. It is the institution of higher education to which citizens point with pride as *their* institution. It had its beginnings in the mid-1800s, as a place where the more academically oriented youngsters could complete the freshmen and sophomore years of baccalaureate education while living at home. While in that stage of its historical development, the junior college was not a particularly distinctive institution, but rather sought to emulate nearby four-year colleges or universities. During the second and third quarters of the twentieth century, the two-year college came into its own as a major contributor to meeting increasing national demands upon higher education.[1] It was during this period, particularly since World War II and the "GI Bill," that the two-year college primarily came to serve local needs. The influence of two-year colleges has steadily grown stronger during the past two decades and so has the philosophy that sets it apart from both secondary schools and four-year colleges.

The transition of the community college from the "feeder school" role to its present distinctive, substantial role of serving the diverse educational needs of the community is reflected in the fact that there are presently about 1,100 such institutions serving about

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**The term two-year college is used in this paper as a generic title for those institutions which offer one- and two-year, postsecondary curricula. Often the terms "community college" and "junior college" are used interchangeably.

[1]Angelo C. Gillie, *Occupational Education in the Two-Year College* (University Park: Center for the Study of Higher Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 1970).

2.5 million students of varied backgrounds.[2] The institution's popularity is probably based upon economic as well as philosophic reasons: as the costs of higher education have risen, more students have been forced to economize by attending colleges near their homes; and legislators, members of congress, and members of local education boards have found these institutions to be relatively economical to operate, as well as egalitarian in philosophy. As a result they have come to support them rather generously.

The evolved ideological components of what is referred to here as the community college philosophy are broadly reflected in the literature.[3] The philosophy's principal features are a commitment to offering comprehensive curricula (transfer, general, occupational, part-time, and evening); serving students with wide ranges of interests, ages, and abilities; maintaining flexibility with respect to the needs of the community; and working toward excellence in teaching, rather than the pursuit of knowledge that characterizes the university. Whether community college education will successfully meet these comprehensive goals is obviously dependent upon a great number of factors. This investigation focuses upon one vital factor—the faculty.

Leaders of the community college movement have maintained that realization of goals is contingent upon the support of the faculty.

> It is considered imperative by the movement leadership that junior college faculty accept the philosophy and purpose as defined by the normative consensus because . . . their perceptions and attitudes will in-

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[2]William A. Harper, *1971 Junior College Directory* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges and the Eric Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges with assistance from the Research Division, National Education Association, 1971).

[3]Clyde E. Blocker, Robert H. Plummer, and Richard C. Richardson, Jr., *The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1956), pp. 135-136; Kenneth A. Brunner, "Historical Development of the Junior College Philosophy," *Junior College Journal* 40 (1970): 30-34; Leland L. Medsker, *The Junior College: Progress and Prospect* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960); Leland L. Medsker and Dale Tillery, *Breaking the Access Barrier: A Profile of Two-Year Colleges* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971); and Roger Yarrington, ed., *Junior Colleges: 50 States/50 Years* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1969).

evitably exert a major influence on the course of these institutions and their educational effectiveness.[4]

Or, to paraphrase a famous higher education quote, "The faculty *is* the institution."

It therefore follows that it is important to ascertain the extent to which two-year college faculty members support the mission of their institutions, and to the extent that they do not, why not? Such are the purposes of this paper.

The Empirical Evidence: A Picture of Ambivalence

Opinions and reports vary as to the extent of faculty support for the community college philosophy. Some observers have taken the position that two-year college teachers "are hearty in their endorsement of the philosophy of the junior college as a flexible institution."[5] Similarly, in a preliminary survey for the American Association of Junior Colleges, Garrison visited twenty community colleges of varying sizes and locations and interviewed over 500 instructors. He concluded that as a whole, faculties were excited by the challenges of teaching in such comprehensive institutions. Their major concern was not with opposition to community college goals, but with how to continue one's professional growth within the community college world.[6]

More common in community college literature, however, is the assertion that there are dichotomous points of view among faculty members concerning the goals of community college education. Whether the dichotomies are stated as "liberal vs. conservative,"[7] "realism vs. rationalism,"[8] "student-oriented vs. subject-

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[4]James L. Morrison, "The Relationship of Socialization Experience, Role Orientation, and the Acceptance of the Comprehensive Community Junior College Concept by the Public Junior College Faculty" (Ph.D. diss., Florida State University, 1969), p. 19.

[5]K. Patricia Cross, "The Quiet Revolution," *The Research Reporter* 4 (1969): 1-4.

[6]Roger H. Garrison, *Junior College Faculty: Issues and Problems, A Preliminary National Appraisal* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1967).

[7]Blocker, et al., *The Two-Year College*, pp. 135-136.

[8]James W. Thornton, Jr., *The Community Junior College*, 2nd ed. (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966), pp. 4-7.

oriented,"[9] "establishment vs. academic faculty,"[10] or "community college philosophy vs. four-year college approach," the underlying question is the extent of faculty support for advertised goals of the community college. Do two-year college faculty members heartily endorse the community college philosophy as Cross would have us believe? Or does substantial opposition exist? Although this question has not been directly answered previously, some related evidence is available.

One index of the extent of faculty satisfaction with two-year college goals (i.e., the community college philosophy) is the willingness to remain in two-year college teaching positions. Although this index is limited because persons may support the community college philosophy while preferring another kind of institution for themselves, the index does provide an indication of sorts.

Results of several studies have indicated that a substantial portion of junior college teachers would prefer a different kind of position. Questionnaire responses from faculty members of Minnesota's institutions of higher education revealed that only 31 percent of junior college respondents were "very satisfied" with their careers as compared to 50 percent of the four-year college respondents. Two-thirds of the junior college sample would again choose a junior college teaching career, but 14 percent of the sample "felt that they would definitely choose some other field of work."[11] These findings are informative, and they indicate considerable faculty ambivalence. Personal institutional goal compatibility—the focus of this investigation—is, however, just one aspect of job satisfaction.

In a more closely related study, Medsker concluded from a national survey of two-year colleges that "the responses on prefer-

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[9]Earl Koile and Diane Wolfe Tatem, "The Student-Oriented Teacher," *Junior College Journal* 36 (1966): 24-26, and Norman L. Friedman, "Career Stages and Organizational Role Decisions of Teachers in Two Public Junior Colleges," *Sociology of Education* 40 (1967): 231-245.

[10]Norman L. Friedman, "Comprehensiveness and Higher Education: A Sociologist's View of Public Junior College Trends," *AAUP Bulletin* 52 (1966): 417-423.

[11]Ruth E. Eckert and John E. Stecklein, "Career Motivations and Satisfactions of Junior College Teachers," *Junior College Journal* 30 (1959): 83-89.

ence do not reflect as high a degree of enthusiasm for the junior college on the part of its professional staff as would ordinarily be presumed."[12] Thirty-seven percent of the 3,282 respondents preferred that their institution become a four-year college, and 35 percent would send a competent son to a four-year college rather than to a junior college—presuming personal funds were sufficient. Fifty-two percent would prefer to teach in a senior college. These results indicate that the faculty questioned personally preferred four-year institutions to two-year colleges.

Other investigations have yielded similar findings. Clark found that six out of ten of the teachers at San Jose Junior College would prefer to teach in a senior college.[13] Siehr's et al. survey of 429 junior colleges found that one-third of the 2,783 respondents planned to remain in junior college teaching. One-quarter of his sample openly aspired to senior college teaching.[14] In summary, these studies suggest that there is a substantial proportion of two-year college faculty who for some reason aspire to other positions.

The relationship of these findings to faculty acceptance of the community college philosophy appears to have been somewhat overstated by the investigators or by those who have cited their findings. Though none of these studies directly assesses the question of institutional-goal compatibility, they may seem to provide answers for it. *These studies generally indicate considerable ambivalence in faculty views.*

There are many reasons why an individual might prefer to teach in a four-year college and still agree with the goals of two-year institutions. Higher income, greater prestige, lighter teaching loads are only a few of the presumed advantages. One might desire these things for himself and yet strongly endorse the egalitarian objectives of the two-year college. Though Medsker's data appear to be related to faculty acceptance of the community college philosophy (certainly more so than the other surveys), again, one might heartily support the philosophy and still prefer that his institution become

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[12]Medsker, *Profile of Two-Year Colleges*, p. 176.

[13]Burton R. Clark, *The Open Door College: A Case Study* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

[14]H. E. Siehr, et al., *Problems of New Faculty Members in Community Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1963).

four-year. In other words, philosophic views are not synonomous with views on a specific matter. On the other hand, the findings of Siehr et al. might easily be explained away by reference to the phenomenon of personal goals readjustment, a process that most of us seem to undergo periodically. What we need to know is the extent of agreement with the community college philosophy among faculty members who are in fact teaching there.

The conclusion drawn from related research is that, although faculty views on the community college philosophy are important if not crucial to smoothly operating community colleges, the extent of faculty agreement with the philosophy has not been directly assessed. The next section of this paper reports the findings of an effort to gain such information.

Ambivalence on the Question of Goals: Findings in Pennsylvania

The effort described herein was an attempt to measure the extent of agreement with the community college philosophy among faculty members of three kinds of Pennsylvania colleges that offer two-year programs. The population of this study was limited to faculty from the community colleges, private junior colleges, and The Pennsylvania State University's Commonwealth Campuses, because most two-year college students in the state are enrolled in these types of institutions. (Appendix A describes these institutions in some detail.)

Questions of secondary interest involved the relative extent of agreement with the community college philosophy among faculty members, considering certain demographic variables and the various institutional types which they represented. Considering the missions of the various institutions, it was predicted that of the three kinds of institutions, community colleges would show the most favorable faculty attitudes toward the community college philosophy. Also the work of Patterson suggested that younger faculty members, vocational-technical faculty members, and those not holding doctorates would tend to show the most supportive attitudes.[15]

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[15] Robert A. Patterson, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Career Patterns of Pennsylvania Community College Teachers and Their Attitudes Toward Educational Issues" (D.Ed. Diss., The Pennsylvania State University, 1970).

A mail questionnaire was designed to reflect the major components of the community college philosophy. (The instrument is located in Appendix B along with a discussion of related methodological questions.) A random sample of 100 faculty members was drawn from the total faculty in each of the three institutional categories. An 86 percent return was gained utilizing systematic follow-up techniques as set forth by Leslie.[16]

Faculty members, as a total group, showed a slightly positive reaction to the community college philosophy. Responding on a six-point Likert Scale, where 6.0 corresponds to strong agreement, 3.5 is neutral, and 1.0 indicates strong disagreement, the mean score for the entire group for all twenty-five items was 3.8. The total response, therefore, was clearly not strongly positive. On fifteen items faculty scores were significantly positive, and on six items faculty scores were significantly negative. (See the questionnaire in Appendix B.)

As theorized, community college faculty were somewhat more positive about the community college philosophy than were junior college and Commonwealth Campus faculty members. It should be noted, however, that the differences were small. The means on the one-to-six Likert Scale by college group were: community college faculty = 4.0, Commonwealth Campus faculty = 3.7, and junior college faculty = 3.7.

In order to increase the "interpretability" of the instrument, a factor analysis was performed on responses to twenty-two of the twenty-five items.* The factors** are described as follows:

> *Factor I: Standards* (51.47 percent of the explainable variance)
>
> Individuals obtaining high negative factor scores are those concerned with the standards of their institu-

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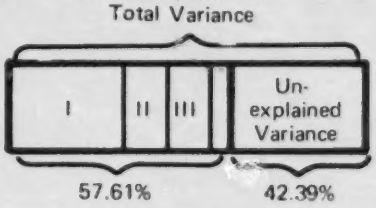
[16] Larry L. Leslie, "Obtaining Response Rates to Long Questionnaires," *Journal of Educational Research* 63 (1970): 345-350.

*Three items were eliminated after an item analysis.

**The three factors presented here account for 92.55 percent of the total explainable variance, which was 57.61 percent of all possible variance. In other words, these three factors account for 92.55 percent of 57.61 percent, or 53.32 percent of the total variance.



tion. They feel that two-year institutions are too much like high schools and that admissions and grading standards should be more competitive than they are. These respondents feel the faculty is too concerned with keeping students in school instead of weeding out poor students. They believe that the present student body detracts from the institution. There is a hint of this factor that the faculty it describes prefers academic curricula, academically oriented students, and feels that the vocational student only detracts from the school. In summation, the standards factor seems to describe the two-year college faculty that is somewhat oriented toward the senior college-university mode of higher education.

Factor II: Goals (20.52 percent of the explainable variance)

A high positive factor score describes the individual who feels that responsiveness to the needs of the community is a primary responsibility of the two-year college. This includes open admissions and "institutional offerings heavily balanced in favor of occupational programs" and the offering of "lower level skill curricula." There is an element of the "anti-academic" in this factor. Furthermore, there is some implication that faculty with a positive factor score oppose the inclusion of more academic curricula and feel that their institution should not be oriented toward the transfer student. A high positive factor score thus describes the faculty member who sees occupational program offerings and community service as important goals for the community college.

Factor III: Faculty Role (20.56 percent of the explainable variance)

A positive score here indicates an opposition to research and publishing as requirements to faculty promotion. Some anti-academic items contribute slightly to this factor. This factor may have been clearer had an item concerned with the importance of the quality of teaching performance in two-year colleges been included.

Again considering the entire sample, faculty members shared the community college philosophy in regard to Factors I (Standards) and III (Faculty Roles), although agreement was "with reservation" and they were ambivalent on Factor II (Goals).

Secondary to investigating the attitudes of two-year faculty in general, was an examination of the differences within the population. Faculty views on Factors I, II, and III were compared on the basis of institutional type, age, highest degree held, and faculty reference group. (See Appendix C for ANOVA Table.)

TABLE 1

STANDARDIZED MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR THREE FACTORS ACCORDING TO INSTITUTIONAL TYPE

			Means*		
Type of Institution	N	%	Factor I Standards	Factor II Goals	Factor III Faculty Role
A. Commonwealth Campus	93	36.1	0.0447	−0.4247	−0.0268
B. Community Colleges	85	32.9	−0.0769	0.8140	0.0136
C. Private Junior Colleges	80	31.0	0.0298	−0.3711	0.0167

*Factor scores have been standardized to a total group mean of 0.0 and a standard deviation of 1.0. A positive mean factor score for a subgroup indicated that the subgroup attitude lies within the positive half of the distribution—i.e., the subgroup attitude is more positive toward the community college philosophy than the mean attitude of the total group.

As indicated in Table 1, community college faculty were more positive (i.e., above the mean) toward Factor II (Goals),* than were Commonwealth Campus faculty and faculty of private junior colleges —i.e., community college faculty members felt most strongly that service to the community was an appropriate goal for the two-year college. No significant differences among institutional type were found for factor scores on Factors I and III.

Table 2 presents the factor scores for the three age groups in the sample. It was found that the group of persons aged thirty or less was significantly less concerned with standards (Factor I) than were the older age groups. There were no significant differences among ages for Factors II and III.

**Refer to the description of factors for interpretation.

TABLE 2

STANDARDIZED MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR THREE FACTORS ACCORDING TO AGE

Age	N	%	Means		
			Factor I Standards	Factor II Goals	Factor III Faculty Role
A. 30 and under	76	29.5	0.2863	0.0104	−0.1305
B. 31-49	134	51.9	−0.0685	0.0271	0.0237
C. 50 and over	48	18.6	−0.2621	−0.0918	0.1405

Faculty members holding a doctorate were compared with persons in all other degree categories. It was found that holders of the doctorate degree were significantly more negative toward Factor II (Goals) than were the other four groups. Refer to Table III.

TABLE 3

STANDARDIZED MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR THREE FACTORS ACCORDING TO DEGREE HELD

Degree Held	N	%	Means		
			Factor I Standards	Factor II Goals	Factor III Faculty Role
A. No Degree	8	3.2	0.6237	−0.1899	0.0819
B. Associate	5	1.9	0.0900	−0.5391	0.0590
C. Bachelor's	29	11.2	−0.0397	0.1655	−0.0921
D. Master's	182	70.5	0.0662	0.0083	0.4304
E. Doctorate	34	13.2	−0.0936	−1.7288	0.0024

Faculty members identifying with vocational-technical education were compared with those identifying with liberal arts programs. Table 4 illustrates that faculty members citing vocational-technical faculty as their reference group were positive toward Factor II

TABLE 4

STANDARDIZED MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR THREE FACTORS ACCORDING TO REFERENCE GROUP

Reference Group	N	%	Means		
			Factor I Standards	Factor II Goals	Factor III Faculty Role
A. Vocational-Technical Faculty	79	30.6	−0.0626	0.4843	0.0611
B. Liberal Arts Faculty	136	52.7	0.1034	−0.4363	−0.0918
C. Neither	43	16.7	−0.2120	0.4903	0.1780

(Goals), whereas those identifying with liberal arts were negative. No other comparisons yielded significant differences.

In summary, teaching in a *community college, not holding a doctorate* and identifying with *vocational-technical education* all contributed to a positive attitude toward community service goals, while being *under 30* years of age, contributed to a "softer" attitude toward college standards. Hence, Patterson's findings were supported. It is interesting to note that no significant differences occurred in any of the treatments of Factor III (Faculty Role). All seemed to be in about equal agreement that degrees held and research published should not be a requisite to promotion in the two-year college system.

Summary

Most studies of this sort have examined differences within the two-year faculty population without considering the group as a whole. Other studies have skirted the primary question by assessing indirectly related evidence. Therefore, normative data regarding specific responses by the total faculty to acceptance of the community college philosophy has been lacking. This study attempted to answer the basic question of the extent of general faculty agreement with the community college philosophy before proceeding to an examination of faculty group differences.

Our survey of Pennsylvania two-year college faculties indicates reserved agreement with the community college philosophy. This agreement was most clearly revealed by responses to items composing the Standards Factor and the Faculty Role Factor. Thus it was indicated that faculty members are in slight agreement with leniency in admissions and grading standards and diversity in program offerings and are opposed to a research and publishing reward system for faculty.

On the basis of this research and accounts of related research in the literature, the investigators' general conclusion is that faculty are ambivalent in their support of their institutions. The empirical portion of this research reveals a lack of consensus among the two-year faculty members queried, relative to those aspects of the community college philosophy touched upon in the questionnaire. In those cases where the responses were supportive of the community college philosophy, they were only mildly so. This finding is consistent with the results of previous related research.

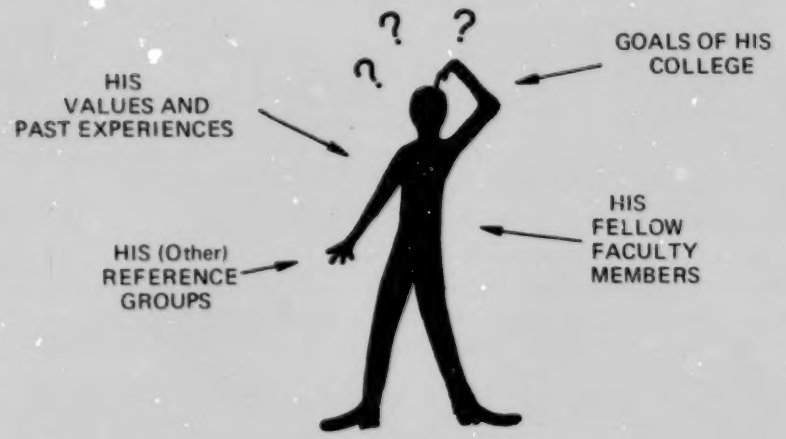
Sources of Ambivalence

Human beings as social animals experience distinct discomfort when they feel they are doing something they should not, or are not doing something they feel they should. The limits of "shoulds and should-nots" are matters of social and individual control that vary from situation to situation. In examining the milieu of the two-year college faculty member, it appears that the "shoulds and should-nots" are influenced by four major forces: his perceptions of the goals of his institution, his perceptions of the implications of the behaviors and attitudes of those faculty members with whom he associates daily, his perceptions of the behaviors and attitudes characteristic of members of his reference groups (including his own faculty), and the values and perspectives derived from his past experiences. The individual finds himself in a serious predicament when these four forces demand *different* behaviors of him. He experiences some degree of uncertainty about the nature of his role. "Conceptually, [role] conflict refers to expectations which are not simply different, but which are, in some way, incompatible and mutually

contradictory."[17] In this section the four forces of influence shall be examined for inconsistencies in the demands they place upon the two-year college teacher as he performs the tasks of his role.

Institutional Goals

Two-year colleges are organizations, and "organizations are social units which pursue specific goals; their very *raison d'etre* is the service of these goals."[18] Every individual member of the organization is expected to contribute to the achievement of organizational goals. The community college philosophy is an expression of the organizational goals of two-year colleges. Faculty members are expected to act in consonance with this philosophy; that is, they are expected to take part in activities which contribute to comprehensiveness in curricula and types of students served. However, the nature of the institutional goals themselves may cause confusion and faculty role conflict. For example, Dale Tillery has observed that the



[17]W. W. Charters, Jr., "The Social Background of Teaching," *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), p. 795.

[18]Amitai Etzioni, *Modern Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 5.

differential demands upon the teacher caused by attempting to serve a diverse student body can create difficulties in role definition.[19]

Daily Associations

In his daily activities the two-year college teacher will most likely be substantially influenced by his colleagues. This influence may be detrimental to the institution's goals. Morrison found that interaction with a faculty that is student-oriented increases the likelihood that student orientation will be seen as an integral part of the teaching role.[20] One would assume that the reverse is also possible—that association with a discipline-oriented faculty would increase discipline orientation. In this case a faculty member whose past education experiences inspired a discipline orientation would have his values reinforced by his peers, increasing the possibility of conflict with the goals of the comprehensive two-year college.

Reference Groups

All of us have personal goals, whether they are to maintain our current status or to "move ahead." One important determinant of our professional goals is membership in groups which project an image consistent with our image of ourselves. The question for consideration here is whether the two-year college teacher identifies with persons supportive of the community college mission. If not, he is likely to hold the points of view of some external reference group* to which he aspires. Thus attitudes among two-year college teachers will vary as the groups with which they identify differ. The extent of goal conflict will vary accordingly. Medsker suggests some possibilities:

> The attitudes of junior college teachers may reflect the educational values or attitudes of teachers in four-year colleges and universities. Another possibility is that the relatively new and inexperienced teacher in

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[19]Dale Tillery, "Academic Rank: Promise or Peril?" *Junior College Journal* 33 (1963): 6-9.

[20]Morrison, "Relationship of Socialization."

*A reference group is "any group with which a person psychologically identifies himself." Alfred R. Lindesmith and Anselm L. Strauss, *Social Psychology*, rev. ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966), p. 241.

> the junior college will retain close identity with the graduate school or department from which he recently came and thus visualize the role of the junior college in terms of graduate standards and procedures. Still another possibility is that junior college teachers who once taught in high school may retain that perspective after they transfer to junior college teaching. A junior college teacher may have many reference points . . . each one of which may influence his thinking about the junior college.[21]

It stands to reason that if an individual's reference group is an important part of his identity, he will not wish to offend the values of this group. His conception of the actual behaviors he should carry out daily—his role expectations—will be influenced in part by his perception of the expectations of his reference group. If the demands of his reference group are incompatible with the demands of his organization, again, the result is some degree of incongruence and conflict in role. For example, a two-year college English teacher identifying with traditional liberal arts faculties (reference group) might see his role (role expectation) as teaching a group of college-age youth with academic interests. He might perceive the goals of his institution as educating students who will later transfer to four-year colleges, and thus favor a selective admissions policy. In reality, however, he would be faced with a comprehensive institution with open admissions. Teaching future auto mechanics the rudiments of the English language might be just one result of institutional policy that would lead to role conflict for such a teacher.

Clark suggested that because of a "hidden" community college function, which he labeled "cooling out," any teacher, no matter what his past experiences, colleagues, or reference groups, will suffer some degree of role conflict.[22] The cooling out function requires the two-year college teacher "to help actively in identifying the true transfers and the latent terminal students and in pressuring the latter to recognize their status."[23] This has sometimes been done by passing only students who perform to some specified standard. Faculty members oriented toward scholarship would find difficulty in adapting their roles to students rather than to their disciplines, while

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[21] Medsker, *The Junior College*, pp. 173-174.
[22] Clark, *The Open Door College*.
[23] Ibid., p. 123.

student-oriented teachers would find awarding a substantial number of failing grades a difficult requirement of their role. In other words some role conflict, no matter what one's philosophical orientation, appears to be inevitable in many community colleges.

Previous Experiences

Other difficulties arise because of conflicts between institutional goals and the values and perspectives derived from personal past experiences. Two-year college teachers as a whole are educated people. Their values about education are usually based upon several years of study within discipline-oriented collegiate situations. Even faculty members who have had experience in the more "student-oriented" public schools tend to perceive the community college faculty role as being similar to liberal arts college and university faculty roles.[24] Those who teach in vocational-technical programs may be likely to perceive their role more as "college teacher" than as draftsman, mechanic, or body-and-fender man. The goals of two-year colleges require faculty members to reorient to a student-centered educational atmosphere which runs counter to most previous educational experiences, and often to their previously held roles. Role conflict results.

The educational values of two-year college teachers were examined by Medsker in a national survey of faculty agreement with some selected objectives of two-year college education. He found almost unanimous agreement that the first two years of traditional college education (97 percent) and terminal vocational programs (92 percent) were important goals of junior colleges. A minority opposed more extended objectives, such as remedial high school courses (28 percent), supplementary study in English and math (19 percent), vocational in-service classes for adults (20 percent), general education classes for adults (10 percent), and college support of public forums, plays, or concerts (13 percent). He found that transfer programs were rated as more important by teachers of academic subjects, and terminal programs were rated more highly by teachers of applied subjects. The transfer (academic) functions of two-year colleges were awarded the most support, probably because of the college

[24]Patterson, "An Investigation."

education backgrounds of most teachers.[25] One might infer from Medsker's data on the less popular functions that between one-tenth and one-third of two-year college teachers would suffer role conflict if they were asked to perform those functions considered to have no place in the two-year college.

In conclusion it seems that in examining the interaction of four major forces working to shape the roles of two-year college teachers, substantial reason for confusion and ambivalence towards the goals of community college education has been found. Such incongruence and conflict in teaching roles is undoubtedly detrimental to the achievement of the community college goals. The individual may continue to operate in some half-hearted way or he may move on if he can. "The underlying assumption here is that when a person feels great frustration and dissatisfaction because of goal incongruence, he will move to another institution, whereas in situations where he is not much troubled by goal incongruence, he will remain."[26] The problem facing community colleges, then, is to devise a means of reducing such incongruences between the desires of the faculty and the goals of the organization.

Toward Goal Compatibility

Based upon the method of sampling and the high rate of return, it can safely be assumed that these findings are representative of the entire faculty population of these three types of Pennsylvania institutions. Therefore, it appears that the "faculty philosophy" is at serious odds with the "community college philosophy." This is not to say that faculty members strongly oppose the purposes of their institutions; clearly their views are most accurately defined as ambivalent. It is difficult to imagine, however, that two-year colleges can establish and maintain institutional vitality of purpose with only reserved faculty support.

What are the implications of these findings? *First*, two-year colleges might well consider a review of their recruiting policies.

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[25] Medsker, *The Junior College.*

[26] Edward Gross and Paul V. Grambsch, *University Goals and Academic Power* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1968), p. 37.

They may wish to seek out persons who understand and have internalized the mission of the two-year institution. The data from this study offer a few clues as to the kinds of persons who should be recruited, although the variation among faculty members according to demographic characteristics is fairly small compared to total differences of view. All other factors being equal, however, young faculty, vocational-technical faculty, and nondoctorate faculty are somewhat more likely to support the community college philosophy than their counterparts. At the risk of building stereotypes, it seems logical to assume that persons who have earned doctorates may tend to subscribe to a senior college or university philosophy; that teachers of academic subjects may tend to identify closely with their disciplines and as a result tend to emphasize intellectual development over personal development, whereas the teachers of "occupational" courses may be more likely to encourage individual development through practical achievements in the classroom and laboratory; that faculty beyond age thirty, who are perhaps more likely to have ego involvement with the institution, may be inclined to uphold those more prestigious aspects of two-year college education. (Of course, this may simply be a reflection of generational differences in values.)

Second, it is perhaps unreasonable or even undesirable to expect that all two-year college faculty members personally behave in such ways as to reflect completely all aspects of the community college philosophy. It would seem that some diversity in faculty behavior is desirable in a comprehensive type institution. For example, many persons expressed a deep commitment to teaching and an alienation from the research-publication syndrome, but a few expressed interest in the latter, and research and publishing *is* needed in the two-year college area. Many are temperamentally best suited to teaching the academically oriented student and experience difficulty (and disenchantment) when their classes are composed of occupational students. Such teachers can contribute to their institution in their own way. However, it is perhaps not unreasonable to expect faculty tolerance for goals at variance with their own, and thus for philosophical acceptance of the tasks that others must perform in a comprehensive institution.

Third, there should be some diversity in faculty philosophies among the three types of institutions because institutional purposes vary. All support goals related to the community college philosophy,

but each institution serves a somewhat unique clientele and purpose. The community colleges attempt to minister to a wide range of clients via their low tuitions and layered, diversified curricula. The junior colleges serve a more limited socioeconomic group by virtue of their high tuition, and the Commonwealth Campuses narrow their clientele by their more demanding entrance requirements. Therefore, it is desirable that the various institutions not be carbon copies of each other; diversity is a highly valued characteristic of American higher education.

Recognizing that diversity is a desirable feature of higher education and that not all institutions should mimic Harvard, it is important to develop a pluralistic attitude on the part of faculty members of two-year colleges. There are many worthy functions to be served by two-year colleges, and serving the traditional transfer student is only one. Pluralism demands tolerance for other missions and a pluralistic faculty is complementary to the pluralistic community college philosophy.

But how should faculty pluralism be established as an overriding philosophy? One means already suggested would be to change methods of selecting faculty, and this holds some promise. The alteration of recruiting practices, however, is not likely to produce conspicuously improved faculty attitudes. There is no simple way to identify promising faculty members; personalities are too complex. Some simple combination of demographic traits is not likely to yield the model two-year college faculty member. Instead, two-year institutions should investigate either the development of a sensitive, accurate screening instrument or a means of educating faculty to the purposes of the two-year college—in other words, the establishment of an institutionally supportive community college faculty role description.

Establishing the best mode for educating faculty to two-year college goals is a difficult task, but it would seem that this experience should ideally precede faculty appointment. Once faculty members are exposed to the biases of their faculty peers, the opportunity for attitude alteration may largely have passed. If, however, prospective two-year college faculty members were educated to the community college philosophy prior to employment, they might, to a great extent, self-select themselves. In any case, preparing institutions would

have the first opportunity to shape the relevant values of these persons.

This strategy suggests some kind of preservice experience in a program explicitly designed for two-year college teachers—a strategy that runs counter to the credentials regulations of those states which require only subject-matter competence. What would best comprise these experiences—whether courses, seminars, or some other mode--seems less important than the program's goals, which must include faculty acceptance of a redefined community college faculty role. Specific issues to be confronted would be the traditional arguments that open admissions and "institutional quality" are incompatible, that student counseling implies "wet-nursing," that occupational programs are degrading, etc. The reader who is knowledgeable about the purposes of two-year colleges will recognize these to be nonsensical issues.

Having stated the case for preservice education, it is nevertheless only realistic to recognize the need for changing the attitudes of the present generation of two-year college faculty members. The goals are the same as for preservice orientation, but the mode obviously must vary for persons who teach nine or ten months per year. Hence, we advocate summer programs funded in ways similar to the National Science Foundation's Summer Institutes. These institutes, which pay stipends to participants, have been enormously successful in upgrading the quality of science instruction in the public schools. The needs of two-year colleges today are hardly less than those of the public school science classroom of the post-Sputnik era.

In summary, we are clearly calling for two-year college faculty members to view their roles in a more enlightened, nonelitist way. There are already far too many institutions seeking to mimic Harvard, and their students are being served rather well. But students who lack the means to attend the more elitist institutions of higher education deserve treatment befitting their special needs and aspirations, whether these efforts signify a transfer to the halls of ivy or self-sufficiency through meaningful employment.

APPENDIX A:

Descriptions of Associate Degree Granting Institutions and Their Students

70/71

Since this study seeks to measure the extent of agreement with the community college philosophy among two-year college faculty members in Pennsylvania, it is appropriate to enter into some discussion of the kinds of institutions under consideration.

There are six generic types of associate degree granting institutions in Pennsylvania.[27] The faculties from only three of these types were queried in this study because the remaining three enroll relatively few students. The three types of institutions surveyed and the number of each were: community colleges (14); private junior colleges (13); and Commonwealth Campuses of The Pennsylvania State University (18). A list of the institutions is included at the end of this appendix.

The Institutions

Considerable diversity is found among the colleges in the Commonwealth that offer associate degrees. Forty-three institutions awarded about 8,000 associate degrees in June 1970.[28] This number is expected to increase sharply in the next several years as the community colleges expand and the number of proprietary schools permitted to grant the associate degree increases. Twenty proprietary type institutions have recently been authorized to offer the two-year degree; this will increase the number of institutions producing associate degree graduates to at least seventy by 1973. Distribution of students is reflected in the September 1970 enrollment figures. According to those figures the numbers of degree candidates, by type of institution were: community colleges—26,000; junior colleges—4,700;

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[27] Angelo C. Gillie, *Postsecondary Occupational Education: An Overview and Strategies* (University Park: The Center for the Study of Higher Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 1970b).

[28] Roger G. Hummel, "Degrees and Other Formal Awards Conferred by Pennsylvania Institutions of Higher Education," *Our Colleges and Universities Today* 8 (1971): 48.

Pennsylvania State University Commonwealth Campuses*–6,700; proprietary schools–3,000.[29]

Another indication of institutional and program diversity is reflected in the variety of names given to the associate degrees awarded.† Seven different associate degrees are offered by various institutions in the Commonwealth at the present time; they are: (1) Associate of Applied Arts; (2) Associate of Applied Science; (3) Associate of Arts; (4) Associate of Science; (5) Associate of Science Technology; (6) Associate of Science in Business; (7) Associate Degree (in specialized curriculums).

There are differences among the three primary types of colleges in the ways in which they are controlled and financed. The public community colleges obtain their financial support in a manner unlike any other higher education institutions in the Commonwealth. Support for physical facilities is obtained from the student, the community college district, and the state (Pennsylvania Community College Act of 1963–Act 484). Local taxation, based upon real estate assessments, is the means of obtaining local funding.

The Commonwealth Campuses of The Pennsylvania State University are included in the overall budget of the university without

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*Freshmen and sophomores in liberal arts and sciences and professional schools at the Commonwealth Campuses are considered baccalaureate candidates. The associate degree as such is offered only to those in the career oriented "nontransfer" programs. The baccalaureate candidates transfer into the junior year without receiving an associate degree.

†Not indicated in the official figures is the even greater diversity in postsecondary occupational programs that lead to diplomas and certificates (not associate degrees). There are many of these types of curriculums being offered in the Commonwealth, most of them by the large number of proprietary institutions. In 1971, there were 122 licensed private business schools and 126 private trade schools according to the Bureau of Private Schools and Veterans Education of the Pennsylvania Department of Education. Therefore, the private sector is providing a considerable input into the postsecondary education effort in the Commonwealth.

[29]Leon R. Calabrese, "Summer and Fall College Enrollments at Pennsylvania Institutions of Higher Education, 1970," *Our Colleges and Universities Today* 8 (1970): 35.

support from direct local taxation. Tuition is higher at the Commonwealth Campuses than at the community colleges, being $675 per year for the Pennsylvania State University and about $350 per year for most of the community colleges, as of September 1970.

Seven of the private junior colleges are independent, nonprofit, and another three are Roman Catholic. Each of the remaining three private junior colleges are under other religious affiliations (i.e., Church of Christ, Wesleyan, and Baptist). With one exception, tuition is considerably higher than at the public community colleges. The range is from $960 per year to $1,350 per year, with the exception of the deviant case, where the tuition is a very low $320.

The Students

Community colleges have admission requirements that are more liberal than either of the other two types of institutions. They generally accept high school graduates and other adults who are considered able to profit from the institution's offerings. Most use ACT scores as an aid in the program placement and not for screening purposes.[30] Admission into specific curricula is based as much upon space availability as upon previous scholastic records and indicated aptitudes.

About 35 percent of community college students are female, and the majority of the applicants live at home, within the region of the school. A sizeable number of students entering the community colleges have experienced interruptions between high school and college. These students most often come from families in the lower middle class sector of the socioeconomic spectrum (slightly below that found for the Commonwealth Campuses, which in turn is below that found for students in private junior colleges).

The Commonwealth Campuses tend to be more selective than the other two types of institutions. Quotas are established for each curriculum, and the number of applicants usually exceeds these quotas. Successful applicants have demonstrated adequate preparation for university work as indicated by SAT scores and high school

[30] Robert L. Sheppard, *Pennsylvania Community Colleges 1970-1971: Open Doors to Learning* (Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1971).

performances. Regular admission is offered first to those with the highest qualifications while applicants with less impressive academic credentials are advised of associate degree programs in their desired areas of study.

The socioeconomic background of the typical Commonwealth Campus student is in the middle range,[31] and most students are Pennsylvania residents. The ratio of males to females in associate degree programs exceeds ten to one (3,500 males and 300 females) and the ratio is about two to one in the Commonwealth Campuses as a whole (6,800 males and 3,500 females).* Twenty-one percent of the associate degree candidates are over twenty-one years of age,[32] which indicates a lapse of time between high school graduation and entry to college. This observation, however, does not appear to hold for baccalaureate candidates.

A substantial proportion of students found in private junior colleges come from relatively affluent socioeconomic backgrounds; fathers are frequently employed as professional or managerial personnel. Like community college students, the majority live at home, although many are also out of state residents. In fact, in several of the junior colleges, 60 percent or more of the students are from other states. Some of these institutions are coeducational, but many limit their enrollment to female students, so that about 60 percent of the private junior college students are women. The average full-time student is slightly less than eighteen years old upon entry and has gone directly from high school to college without interruption.

Institutional Goals

Both junior colleges and Commonwealth Campuses of The Pennsylvania State University have purposes that overlap those of community colleges. This is evidenced both by statements of purpose and the nature of their students. Thus, although these two-year in-

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*1970 Figures.

[31] Carl A. Lindsay, et al., *1968 Fall Term Pennsylvania State University Freshman Class: Profiles of Demographic Variables* (University Park: Office of Student Affairs, The Pennsylvania State University, February 1970).

[32] Gillie, *Occupational Education.*

stitutions, with rare exceptions, *do* have goals in support of the community college philosophy, their faculty members might legitimately be expected to hold other views as well. This point must be considered in appraising faculty reactions to the "community college philosophy."

TABLE A-1

PUBLIC COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Name of College	Full-time Enrollment (October 1969).	Full-time Faculty 1970-71
Bucks County Community College	2271	158
Butler County Community College	757	46
Community College of Allegheny County		
Allegheny Campus	2185	128
Boyce Campus	1604	72
South Campus	1360	55
Community College of Beaver County	750	70
Community College of Delaware County	1301	75
Community College of Philadelphia	3286	230
Harrisburg Area Community College	2257	128
Lehigh County Community College	1197	63
Luzerne County Community College	1200	58
Montgomery County Community College	1605	78
Northampton County Area Community College	1080	78
Williamsport Area Community College	2560	185

TABLE A-2

PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
COMMONWEALTH CAMPUSES

Name of College	Full-Time Enrollment (October 1969)	Full-Time Faculty 1970-71
Allentown	150	12
Altoona	1287	.72
Beaver	748	64
Behrend	1073	69
Berks	507	35
Delaware	558	41
DuBois	453	26
Fayette	581	40
Hazleton	563	32
McKeesport	788	60
Mont Alto	631	36
New Kensington	410	35
Ogontz	1580	90
Schuylkill	623	36
Shenango Valley	366	24
Wilkes-Barre	420	22
Worthington-Scranton	426	30
York	344	25

TABLE A-3

PRIVATE JUNIOR COLLEGES

Name of College	Full-Time Enrollment (October 1969)	Full-Time Faculty 1970-71
Ellen Cushing Junior College	168	8
Harcum Junior College	626	35
Keystone Junior College	879	41
Lackawanna Junior College	346	14
Manor Junior College	146	7
Mt. Aloysius Junior College	425	36
Northeastern Christian Junior College	192	7
Peirce Junior College	1164	48
Penn Wesleyan Junior College	71	9
Robert Morris College	3013	96
Sacred Heart Junior College	21	
Spring Garden College	482	50
Valley Forge Military Junior College	207	19

APPENDIX B:

Instrumentation

Given the resources available, a mail questionnaire was concluded to be the most appropriate technique for assessing faculty acceptance of the community college philosophy. The decision to use a questionnaire was based upon the view as stated by Kerlinger that survey research methods are appropriate to "obtaining personal social facts, beliefs, and attitudes."[33]

An instrument with face validity and internal reliability was desired. The criteria for defining the "community college philosophy" was extracted from the various pronouncements made by community college practitioners, leaders, and theoreticians as reflected in the literature.

A trial run of the instrument was conducted. Responses from the pretest provided the investigators with insight into the shortcomings of the original design. Based on the feedback, many of the specific items were considerably revised. A general concern, which was never totally resolved, dealt with item format: should items be directly stated so as to obtain straightforward opinions, or should they be indirectly stated in order to reduce idealistic tendencies on the part of respondents? The research literature was not very helpful on this point and the final questionnaire combined both approaches. Ambivalence on a few items did result.

The response rate of 86 percent coupled with a negative finding on a trend analysis of responses by the three follow-up waves largely eliminated response rate bias, the greatest threat to survey external validity.[34] Internal reliability was found to be .76.

The most important threat to internal validity in this survey involves the relationship between what people say and what they do. As one answers a questionnaire he may easily "idealize" himself so that his responses represent how he perceives himself more than they

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[33]Fred N. Kerlinger, *Foundations of Behavioral Research* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964), p. 406.

[34]Kerlinger, *Foundations of Behavioral Research*, p. 397; Mildred Parten, *Surveys, Polls, and Samples* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950), pp. 391-402; and William Josiah Goode and Paul K. Hatt, *Methods in Social Research* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1952), Chap. 12.

reflect his actual behavior.* Therefore it was necessary to establish an external criterion measure to validate written responses. Direct observation of respondents' behavior by a single judge could have been used; however, resources did not permit this approach, which has questionable validity anyhow. Another strategy suggested in the literature is the interviewing of a subsample of respondents. This mode of validation was eliminated from consideration because it is susceptible to the same sort of idealization as the first method. The method of validation selected was to gain presidents' ratings of their faculty members' behaviors as they reflect the two-year college philosophy. Surprisingly perhaps, presidents rated faculty *actions* in support of the community college philosophy slightly higher than faculty assessed their own views.

*Kerlinger (p. 408) tends to minimize this possibility as does Parten (p. 486), who states that surveys, on the whole, tend to correlate fairly closely with overt behavior, official records, or data secured through carefully controlled experiments. Parten has also shown, however, that in cases where the respondent's ego is involved there is a constant tendency to overstate (p. 490).

FACULTY OPINIONNAIRE

1. Type of institution:

   93 Commonwealth Campus
   85 Community College
   80 Junior College

2. Age:

   76 30 or under
   134 31-49
   48 50 or over

3. Highest degree held:

   8 No college degree
   5 Associate
   29 Bachelor's
   182 Master's
   34 Doctorate

4. With which group do you most closely identify?

   79 Vocational-Technical staff
   136 Liberal arts staff
   43 Neither, cannot classify
   (Explain: _____)

Please circle the response to the right of the statement which best describes your reaction to the statement.

SA – Strongly Agree
A – Agree
AR – Agree with Reservation
DR – Disagree with Reservation
D – Disagree
SD – Strongly Disagree

		Mean[a]	SD
11. Our admission standards are too low.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.62	1.24
12. Occupationally oriented students cause the quality of our overall program to suffer.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.51*	1.18
13. The cultural backgrounds of our students negatively affect our institution.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.29*	1.33
14. Even in the occupational curricula, faculty members should have a minimum of a master's degree in their teaching areas.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.38	1.64
15. Our institution goes too far in seeking to recruit faculty members who will be sympathetic to our lower ability students.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.95*	.94
16. This institution should practice open admissions by admitting all applicants who are above a certain age.	SA A AR DR D SD	2.48*	1.56

		Mean[a]	SD
17. There tends to be too much stress in this institution on quantity of students and not enough on quality of students.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.74*	1.44
18. Grading standards of our faculty are too liberal; i.e., a considerable number of faculty members are easy graders.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.98*	1.19
19. Our curricula should be more "academic"; i.e., they should be more intellectual than practical.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.05*	1.20
20. Our institutional offerings should be heavily balanced in favor of occupational programs.	SA A AR DR D SD	2.87*	1.30
21. Too many faculty members allow submarginal students to pass their courses.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.79*	1.29
22. Our staff is overly concerned with the student retention rate.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.16*	1.19
23. The primary responsibility of our institution is to serve the educational and training needs of our local citizens.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.00*	1.46
24. Most two-year institutions tend to be too much like high schools.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.66	1.38
25. The overall quality of our students is such that our institution is adversely affected.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.26*	1.18
26. Involvement in research should be requisite to faculty promotion.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.90*	1.17
27. Too many of our present students have jobs that interfere with their studies.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.27*	1.40
28. Too many faculty members fail to understand our students who are vocationally oriented.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.26*	1.28
29. Too many faculty members don't empathize with our students who lack in academic ability.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.09*	1.20
30. The administration talks too much about "working with the students to insure their success."	SA A AR DR D SD	4.35*	1.16
31. Publishing in the professional literature should be requisite to faculty promotion.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.95*	1.01
32. Teaching the kinds of students who will go on to good four-year colleges and universities should be our primary consideration.	SA A AR DR D SD	4.11*	1.30

		Mean[a]	SD
33. Occupational education students should be required to take the same general education courses as transfer program students.	SA A AR DR D SD	3.65	1.34
34. Transfer curricula is overemphasized in two-year institutions.	SA A AR DR D SD	2.83*	1.15
35. Our institution should offer lower level skill curricula, such as cosmetology, welding, nurse's aiding, etc.	SA A AR DR D SD	2.27*	1.43

Please use the space below for any comments you wish to make regarding the opinionnaire. Thank you very much for your assistance.

NOTES:

1. The mean score for all items taken together is significantly different from the neutral position of 3.5 ($t = 9.05$, $p > .05$).
2. [a]Consider all item means to have a possible range of from 1 to 6 with 3.5 as the neutral position. Scores have been altered so that the higher scores always represent a positive reaction to the community college philosophy.
3. *Significantly different from 3.5.

APPENDIX C:

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Independent Variables and Three Factors

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ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND THREE FACTORS

Independent Variables	N	%	Means: Factor I Standards	Means: Factor II Goals	Means: Factor III Faculty Role
1. Type of Institution					
A. Commonwealth Campuses	93	36.1	0.0447	−0.4247[1]	−0.0268
B. Community Colleges	85	32.9	−0.0769	0.8140	0.0136
C. Private Junior Colleges	80	31.0	0.0298	−0.3711	0.0167
2. Age					
A. 30 and under	76	29.5	0.2863[2]	0.0104	−0.1305
B. 31-49	134	51.9	−0.0685	0.0271	0.0237
C. 50 and over	48	18.6	−0.2621	−0.0918	0.1405
3. Highest Degree Held					
A. No Degree	8	3.2	0.6237	−0.1899[3]	0.0819
B. Associate	5	1.9	0.0900	−0.5391	0.0590
C. Bachelor's	29	11.2	−0.0397	0.1655	−0.0921
D. Master's	182	70.5	0.0622	0.0083	0.4304
E. Doctorate	34	13.2	−0.0936	−1.7288	0.0024
4. Reference Group					
A. Vocational-Technical Faculty	79	30.6	−0.0626	0.4843[4]	0.0611
B. Liberal Arts Faculty	136	52.7	0.1034	−0.4363	−0.0918
C. Neither	43	16.7	−0.2120	0.4903	0.1780

[1] $F = 38.28$; $\omega^2 = .23$
[2] $F = 4.56$; $\omega^2 = .03$
[3] $F = 7.26$; $\omega^2 = .10$
[4] $F = 22.55$; $\omega^2 = .15$

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COMPENSATORY EDUCATION IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

James L. Morrison and Reynolds Ferrante

Within the past few years there have been increasing signs of social instability in American society. During the last decade more than 370 civil rights demonstrations involving over a million participants occurred in our country. Almost every major city in the United States experienced widespread and costly riots and civil disorders. The President's Commission on Violence reported that, in addition to the major riots in such cities as Newark, Watts, and Chicago, there have been over 239 violent urban outbursts involving over 200,000 participants. These outbursts have resulted in the loss of hundreds of millions of dollars in property damage alone.[1]

What is the cause of these signs of social instability? Some scholars maintain that these disturbances have resulted from the frustrations and grievances of a large segment of the population (predominantly composed of minority groups) who feel that they lack legitimate access to the rewards and wealth of our society.[2] In short, these groups may have reacted because they believe they have been denied equality of opportunity in civil rights, jobs, or education.

It is the major thesis of this report that, given American norms of contest mobility and the American ideal of equality of opportunity, there is an increasing awareness among particular segments of the lower socioeconomic strata of our society that they have not had the same opportunity to compete in the contest for upward mobility as their fellow Americans. They feel that they have not been dealt with legitimately; they believe that they are "disadvantaged." Such awareness has apparently accentuated the frustration of these

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[1] National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, *Progress Report*, (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1969).

[2] See, for example, the work of Robert K. Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure* (New York: Glencoe Free Press, 1957), pp. 131-94.

groups and has thereby led to actions (e.g., civil disturbances) which have threatened the stability of the established social order.

These disturbances, in turn, have stimulated compensatory education from educational institutions. This movement is especially strong in the two-year public community college as this institution operationalizes the "open class" concept in higher education.

The major purposes of this paper are to explain the American norm of contest mobility and relate it to the concept of the comprehensive public two-year community college as the exemplary form of community college education.[3] This concept of the comprehensive community college will provide a comparative base by which we can then evaluate current programs of compensatory education as discussed in the literature. It will also provide a comparative base by which we can evaluate the current practices of the community colleges participating in our investigation.

Social Mobility

Open vs. Closed Societies

Theoretically, there are two ideal types of societies: an open society and a closed society. A closed society is one wherein mobility is blocked by ascriptive criteria, e.g., family, sex, religion, or race. In this society, one's position in life is preordained usually by limitation on the kinds of occupations allowed particular members of the society. In traditional India, for example, castes consisted of specific occupational trades because the norms of the caste specified that a person follow in his father's occupational and social footsteps. Further, the norms of the society dictated that marriage follow caste lines, thereby blocking that avenue of mobility.

An open society, on the other hand, is one wherein mobility is characterized by achievement. In this society, various social group-

[3]The thesis of this investigation deals primarily with publicly supported two-year colleges. However, an argument could be developed that privately supported two-year colleges also bear some responsibility for societal maintenance although their obligations in this realm are not as extensive as public institutions. For this reason, they are included in this study.

ings within the social structure are called social classes. As with castes in closed societies, social classes in open societies seem to center around particular occupational groupings which "hang together," usually by virtue of similar occupational tasks, by the amount of training necessary to accomplish those tasks, by the importance of those tasks to the maintenance of society, and/or by commensurate rewards given by the society for the fulfillment of those tasks. Members of social classes (occupational groupings) have common attitudes and values which may serve to distinguish them from members of other occupational groupings requiring different training skills or experiences. For example, corporation lawyers, managers, physicians, and professionals in general seem to have different perspectives of life and different lifestyles than people who drive trucks, deliver the mail, or perform manual work in factories. These differences in attitudes and values extend to various life areas including political beliefs, religious attitudes, and child-rearing practices.

An explanation for these differences may be that the attitudes and values in question are a response to different conditions of life in different groups. For example, when a family is primarily concerned with obtaining sufficient food, clothing, and shelter, it is unlikely that they will develop such attitudes as deferred gratification or an instrumental orientation toward success. Instead, they will more likely stress immediate gratification (getting all you can while you can), and will define success in terms of luck or survival.

This is in marked contrast to the norms of the higher strata, which generally incorporate attitudes of deferred gratification and an instrumental attitude towards life (e.g., using formal education to obtain the credentials for those occupational positions which bring greater material rewards). In the higher strata, a strong achievement orientation is emphasized. Such values and attitudes are essential for success in securing the training required for higher occupational positions which bring power, privilege, and resources. This power, privilege, and share of resources create an allegiance of the clan to the existing social order. But for those members of the lower strata who must share a smaller portion of the power, privileges, and resources, allegiance to the social order is potentially a problem.

Sociologists are in general agreement that the essential element in obtrining allegiance to a social order is that of legitimacy. In other words, as long as members of a society perceive that their

positions in that society are legitimate positions, they will be more likely to have allegiance to the social order of that society and, correspondingly, will be less likely to engage in revolutionary activity to realign that social order.

Norms *vis-a-vis* the legitimacy of social class, power, privilege and mobility vary within different societies. As noted earlier, in traditional Indian society "untouchables" would consider it legitimate, and in the normal order of things, to marry within their caste, receive a rudimentary education, and have a menial occupation. Indeed, if a member of that caste overtly expressed a desire to marry outside of the caste, attend school for more than an elementary education, or become a merchant, he would probably incur as severe a sanctioning from his peers as he would from those in other castes. In Europe during medieval and feudal times it was also considered legitimate to allow little opportunity for upward mobility in that society—a son should follow in the social and occupational footsteps of his father, be he aristocrat or peasant.

Of course, the norms concerning legitimacy change not only from society to society bu within societies as the experience of a people changes. For example, the industrial revolution and the concomitant developments in communication, travel, and formal education, as well as the demand for more people to fill the increasingly large number of specialized roles in industry, allowed some social mobility in Europe.

Sponsored vs. Contest Mobility

Ralph Turner has characterized the type of mobility norm which developed in Europe as "sponsored mobility." This type of mobility is one whereby:

> . . . elite recruits are chosen by the established elite or their agents, and elite status is given on the basis of some criterion of supposed merit and cannot be taken by any amount of effort or strategy. Upward mobility is like the entry into a private club where each candidate must be "sponsored" by one or more of the members. Ultimately the members grant or deny upward mobility on the basis of whether they judge the

candidate to have those qualities they wish to see in fellow members.[4]

Such a mobility norm is, therefore, a process of sponsored induction into the elite. The goal of this type of mobility is to make the best use of the talents in society by sorting persons into their proper niches.

In late nineteenth-century European society, the criteria for sponsorship were, in many respects, ascriptive in nature, i.e., they were predominantly based upon the social and economic position of the family. However, the demands of industrialization and World War I affected these criteria through an increased emphasis upon ability. As a result, high-achieving members of the lower middle and lower classes were also sponsored for elite positions.

The American collective experience, on the other hand, has been different from the European one. The early colonists, coming to this land for a variety of reasons, met a frontier quite different from anything they had known in Europe. It quickly became evident that the measure of a man was his ability to survive and help others survive, not his patrimony. Every man should try to succeed; in fact, success was the measure of a man. If the individual did not succeed it was because he, not society, was a failure. This frontier ethic, in combination with "the Protestant ethic,"[5] is an important factor in explaining the value which Americans typically put on achievement and success.

Such collective experiences served to create certain norms *vis-a-vis* social mobility within our society, i.e., norms enbodying the concept of equality of opportunity and a folk norm of mobility termed by Turner as "contest mobility." According to Turner:

> *Contest* mobility is a system in which elite status is the prize in an open contest and is taken by the aspirants' own efforts. While the "contest" is governed by some rules of fair play, the contestants have wide latitude in

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[4]Ralph Turner, "Sponsored and Contest Mobility and the School System," *The American Sociological Review* 25 (December 1960): 855-867.

[5]An ethic described by Weber as emphasizing that God rewarded those preordained for heaven with material success. Therefore, in order to be sure that he was a chosen one, a person strove to be materially successful.

> the strategies they may employ. Since the "prize" of successful upward mobility is not in the hands of an established elite to give out, the latter cannot determine who shall attain it and who shall not.[6]

In this sense contest mobility has been likened to a sporting event in which many compete for a few recognized prizes. However, the contest is considered fair only if all compete on an equal footing. Victory must be won solely by one's own efforts. Thus the major objective of contest mobility is to grant elite status to those who earn it. To insure a fair race, contest mobility tends to delay the final award of the prize as long as is practical. Each person thinks of himself as competing for material success or an elite position. Indeed, it is essential to delay a sense of final failure as long as possible. Consequently, the contest system must avoid absolute points of selection of mobility or immobility and must delay clear recognition of the realities of the situation until the individual is too committed to the system to change radically.

Irrespective of the type of social mobility, certain factors facilitate or constrain mobility.

Perhaps the major external factor influencing mobility is economic. In periods of economic expansion, the possibilities of mobility open up. Indeed, mobility is necessary because society must fill those positions created by an expanding economy. Of course, even in periods of economic expansion, social mores may affect the extent to which certain segments of the population can take advantage of the expanding economy.

Another factor affecting mobility comes from the social structure of the society. As explained earlier, the exigencies of life among social groups comprising different occupational positions tend to stimulate the formation of norms which incorporate attitudes and values in response to these exigencies which, in themselves, may determine mobility patterns. In other words, those people who internalize attitudes and values not conducive to their success in a larger society are automatically restricted in the amount of mobility they can experience irrespective of an expanding economy.

In an open society, socialization into attitudes and values which inhibit advancement into the mainstream of society, and es-

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[6]Turner, "Sponsored and Contest Mobility," p. 856.

pecially advancement into the occupational positions which would provide the material rewards desired, constitutes "disadvantagement." Legislators, scholars, and educators have only recently recognized this limit to contest mobility.

The Comprehensive Community College as an Agent of Social Mobility

Educators have responded to this awareness of limits to social mobility by sponsoring programs of compensatory education. This move toward compensatory education is one explanation of the tremendous growth of public two-year community colleges. In fact, the public two-year community college is an institutionalization of the "open class" ideology, just as, it may be argued, the comprehensive American secondary school operationalized the value earlier in this century. Indeed, the increasing importance of a college education in achieving upward social mobility, and, in some cases, employability *per se*, places heavy demands on the higher education establishment. Such demands are a consequence of society encouraging attempts (through the norm of "equal opportunity") by more of its members for status positions than there are places. This means that in addition to providing an avenue of mobility, society must develop a "safety valve" to avoid rebellion by those who cannot qualify in the ever-tighter competition for elite status positions.

The comprehensive public community college provides both an opportunity and a "safety valve" because it generally has an "open" admissions policy and provides for all types of academic and vocational training: (1) transfer or preprofessional education; (2) occupational education; (3) general education for all students; (4) community service, including continuing education; (5) guidance and counseling of students; and (6) remedial education. This type of institution, with more curricular offerings, extensive guidance and counseling, remedial education, and an emphasis on teaching, facilitates upward mobility into professional education and enables what Burton Clark termed the "cooling-out" process to function.[7] In essence, this is a process including pretesting, counseling, objective

[7] Burton Clark, "The 'Cooling-Out' Function in Higher Education," *American Journal of Sociology* 65 (May 1960): 569-76.

evaluations of aptitudes, orientation classes, and a liberal probationary policy through which the over-aspiring (latent terminal) student is counseled into an occupational role which is more compatible with his abilities and motivation. Basically, the student accumulates mounting evidence through several terms that he will not succeed in the transfer program but that he probably could succeed in the occupational program. Thus the student is given the "opportunity" to compete for elite status but finally reconciles himself to an occupational role which was initially less desirable. What is important is that this sequence of events leads the individual to consider failure as an individual event and not as a part of a conspiracy. In other words, aspirants for higher occupational positions who did not previously internalize the attitudes and values necessary for success in traditional education programs are provided with the perception that they: (1) can participate in the contest, (2) are participating in the contest, and (3) that if they do not succeed, it is not the fault of the system, but has something to do with themselves. This perception is accentuated when those who must readjust their goals see that some of their academic and social peers are successful in entering and in pursuing the transfer program. In this way, the community college serves as an agent for maintaining social stability.[8]

Given this conception of the role of the two-year college in American society, it is important to examine the nature and extent of compensatory education programs in these colleges. The following sections of this report discuss the nature and rationale of such programs in higher education and the extent to which they exist in two-year colleges first as reported in the literature and then as practiced by the two-year colleges who participated in our survey.[9]

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[8]It should be noted that this role of the public two-year college is a latent function in that it is not a stated function of the community college nor is it a recognized function by most of those who either attend or support this institution.

[9]As noted earlier, the thesis of this investigation deals primarily with publicly supported two-year colleges. However, an argument could be developed that privately supported two-year colleges also bear some responsibility for societal maintenance, although their obligations in this realm are not as extensive as public institutions. For this reason, they are included in this study.

Current Compensatory Practices and Programs in Higher Education as Described in the Literature

There are two major categories of compensatory education programs and practices: (1) those that assist culturally different students in entering institutions of higher education and (2) those that help them succeed in academic and occupational-oriented studies once they have enrolled.

Compensatory practices that assist culturally different students in *entering* institutions of higher education include modified recruitment, admissions, and financial aid. Instruction in basic communication skills, teaching English as a second language, tutorial programs, flexible evaluation, extended school experience, summer programs, cultural enrichment, Black studies, special instructional practices, and extensive guidance and counseling are important compensatory practices designed to assist the culturally different to *succeed* once they enroll. The programs which are currently organized by institutions in order to meet the particular needs of such students generally combine some of these practices.

Compensatory Education Entry Practices

1. Modified Recruitment. For culturally different students, traditional recruitment practices such as the annual spring visitation of college representatives to the high schools have not always been effective. Colleges have had to modify or create specific recruitment practices to attract culturally different students. These special practices have been utilized by federally sponsored programs such as Upward Bound and the College Discovery Program, where students were actively sought out in their own communities to enter institutions of higher education.

A few colleges have developed even more aggressive recruitment practices. One urban two-year college placed high school counselors on its payroll for recruitment services in the high schools where they were normally employed after the regular school hours and on Saturday. The purpose was to recruit students for the community college who would not normally plan to go on with their education

without some very special kind of encouragement from the school.[10]

At Tufts University, 150 undergraduate students traveled throughout the country seeking to interest non-white disadvantaged students in college attendance. Michigan State University worked with a group of nonprofessional adults, housewives, firemen, and other community groups to find qualified Black students for its special program. Antioch College sent out recruitment teams to inner-city areas to recruit students for its special program for the disadvantaged. Southern Illinois University sent their recruitment teams to local high schools where records were searched to locate students. Also, advertisements were placed in newspapers and on radio and television. SIU recruitment team members even visited pool halls, bars, and street corners in search of potential students.[11]

Some colleges solicit nominations of culturally different students considered potentially successful for compensatory programs from members of their student body. Other colleges have developed a list of contacts, such as high school faculty members, social workers, and neighborhood groups. These contacts are consulted for leads to those students who might qualify as potential college material. Another method of recruitment has been initiated by the federally sponsored "New Careers" program where adult members over twenty-one years of age who are currently in the program attempt to recruit other culturally different persons within the community to enter the two-year program.[12]

2. Modified Financial Aid. Most culturally different students require some type of financial aid. This aid is often provided directly or indirectly to institutions of higher education for their special programs through federal, state, and local sources.[13] Aid has also been obtained through foundations, fund drives, and donations from spe-

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[10]Dorothy M. Knoell, "Outreach to the Disadvantaged," *Community College Programs for People Who Need College* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1970), p. 6.

[11]John Egerton, *Higher Education for High Risk Students* (Atlanta: Southern Education Reporting Service, 1968), pp. 19-42.

[12]Knoell, "Outreach," pp. 6-8.

[13]Edmund W. Gordon and Doxey A. Wilkerson, *Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged* (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1966), p. 138.

cial interest groups, as well as from the operating budgets of institutions of higher education.

Compensatory Education for Institutional Success

1. Instruction in Basic Communication Skills. Compared with those from middle class backgrounds, students from culturally different backgrounds are generally less able to use conventional verbal symbols in representing and interpreting their feelings, experiences, and environment.[14] Language stimulation usually results in language development; therefore, it becomes important to extend language experiences for the culturally different in order to develop their ability to problem solve and transfer knowledge of previously learned concepts. Because of the weakness of most of the students in the communication skills, work in this area is essential for their academic progress.

Many compensatory programs in higher education concentrate on the development of communication skills—reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Numerous programs concerned with communication skills include intensive compensatory work prior to entering institutions of higher education and during the regular school term.[15] In addition, the use of standard English is taught in programs designed specifically for the culturally different in such a way that the student's own dialect is not undermined.

2. English as a Second Language. For many students, especially Blacks and Puerto Ricans, standard English is a second language. Students in predominantly Black institutions have the most problems in attempting to learn standard English. As Love indicates, these problems are quite pressing, and may be overwhelming: "The teaching of English in Negro colleges is presently at a standstill—with teachers despairing student apathy and inadequacy and students abandoning any hope of mastering standard English."[16]

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[14]Martin Deutsch, Irwin Katz, and Arthur R. Janse, *Social Class, Race, and Psychological Development* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968), pp. 116-120.

[15]Robert L. Williams, "What Are We Learning From Current Programs for the Disadvantaged?" *Journal of Higher Education* 40 (1969): 285.

[16]Theresa R. Love, "Needs and Approaches for Developing Linguistic Abilities," *Journal of Negro Education* 35 (1966): 400.

Some success has been encountered in teaching standard English when Black dialect is used as a basis for instruction. Textbooks and materials that present standard English as a second language usilize foreign language techniques that are helpful for those accustomed to speaking the nonstandard dialect.[17]

3. Tutorial Programs. Compensatory programs are often developed with the assumption that the culturally different have academic abilities which are inadequate for the traditional college classroom. In order to assist these students in realizing their potential, some institutions have developed special tutorial programs to support classroom activities. These programs have provided extensive individual tutoring in academic areas, with some schools developing corps of tutors which include teachers, graduate students, regular undergraduate students, and advanced students from culturally different backgrounds. The latter have been found to be particularly effective tutors since their success is also evidence of a chance for success to the newer students.[18]

Tutoring is generally used to facilitate the strengths and compensate for the weaknesses of the culturally different student, to develop his confidence, and to aid in his adjustment to college. In addition, tutoring provides the opportunity for him to have assistance and feedback when he needs it. Questions raised in the lecture hall or the large class often remain unanswered, as the student, insecure because of his academic deficiencies, is probably hesitant to speak in such a large group setting. Through the tutoring program, questions are answered as they arise and mistakes corrected when they are made, thereby facilitating the development of confidence in a mastery of academic subjects.

Many community colleges are providing opportunities and encouragement to their students to tutor in inner city schools. Some tutoring is voluntary and some is funded by the colleges, many times through state and federal programs. For example, Project EPIC in Los Angeles is voluntary, whereas students in the San Mateo College Readiness Program and Peralta Junior College District in Oakland receive payment for their tutoring services.[19]

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[17] Williams, p. 274.
[18] Williams, p. 196.
[19] Knoell, "Outreach," p. 7.

4. Flexible Evaluation. Institutions of higher education do not generally lower their grading standards or requirements for graduation for the culturally different. However, two-year schools often have liberal probation policies for these students. Such schools permit students to repeat courses or give them the opportunity to take additional work to raise their grade-point average to a level where they can meet institutional minimal requirements.[20]

Some major concerns that give support to the concept of flexible evaluation for the culturally different are noted by Gordon and Wilkerson:

1. No single factor can be isolated as the cause of low test performance scores.
2. Verbal facility and perceptual ability are two of the most critical factors of the cognitive domain reflected in test performance.
3. Intelligence development varies with the richness, variety, and complexity of the environment over relatively extended periods of time.
4. Low test scores are often a reflection of a negative self-concept and insufficient motivation.
5. The work of the school and the practical intellect of the disadvantaged are often operating as contradictory forces.
6. Assessment instruments used with disadvantaged groups often possess only minimal validity and reliability.[21]

While there is generally little flexibility regarding grading practices, change in this area could have an important effect on implementing the concept of the "open door." For example, the elimination of penalty grading could help to alter the emphasis from punishing unacceptable academic behavior to rewarding appropriate behavior. Capper has noted that fears by some administrators that less punitive grading practices would lead to greater student irresponsibility have not been warranted.[22]

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[20] Michael R. Capper, "Junior College Students on Academic Probation," *ERIC Junior College Research Review* 4 (1969): 2.

[21] Gordon and Wilkerson, *Compensatory Education*, pp. 18-19.

[22] Capper, p. 3.

5. Extended School Experience. The concept of extended school experience is a part of many collegiate programs for the culturally different. This extended program can include precollege orientation and remedial work to assist the student in preparing for his first year of school, summer courses to help him develop special skills needed for his regular program, and the extension of a regular program by several terms.[23]

The extended school experience requires a commitment from the college to give the student enough time to succeed. In the HEW 1970 *Application and Program Manual for the Disadvantaged*, the idea of an extended program includes the minimum time a school should retain a student and the additional time over the regular program period which a student might need to complete his program. It states:

> A minimum for retention (extended program) regardless of grades, might be two years in a four-year institution and one year in a two-year institution. In addition, the institution might develop a program where a student can take what normally would be two years' work in three years, so that at a four-year institution, he would graduate in five years.[24]

Disadvantaged students enter two- and four-year institutions with academic deficiencies that often require additional time in classes and special compensatory programs that would not normally be required of the regular students. The extension of the regular program also provides the institution with the additional time needed to develop curricular program modifications to meet students' special needs and time for these students to take compensatory courses, retake courses, or repeat experiences with which they have not been successful in their initial attempt.

6. Summer Sessions. As previously noted, most culturally different students have some kind of academic deficiency and require additional knowledge of and training in communication skills and

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[23]Gordon and Wilkerson, *Compensatory Education*, pp. 140-148.

[24]Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Special Services for Disadvantaged Students in Institutions of Higher Education Programs," *USOE Application Information and Program Manual*, OE Form 1215, No. 3, 1970, p. 5.

subject content when they enroll. In response to this need, many colleges and universities have developed summer programs to provide the background and skills that are essential to academic success in their institutions.

Some two-year colleges require summer terms as a condition for acceptance into their regular academic programs. These programs sometimes start immediately after official admission to the college and provide instruction in basic college academic requirements.[25]

Summer programs often begin before a student starts his first year. These programs cover basic reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills, in addition to the body of information needed to assure the student some chance of success with the curriculum he has selected. Summer sessions are not limited to pre-entrance, however, and can extend for three or four years after a student has begun his studies.[26]

Summer sessions are often an essential element of programs for the culturally different since additional assistance is generally needed to improve communication skills and content background. Small classes and individual tutoring to meet the special cognitive and affective needs of the student can often be better handled during the summer terms when time and personnel are generally more available and when a relaxed atmosphere generally exists.

7. Cultural Enrichment. It is widely accepted that culturally different students lack the kinds of experiences that middle class students have had which assist in their success in the traditional school system. Culturally different students are usually from the inner cities and rural areas of the South. Opportunities for these students to share in the cultural experiences of the middle and upper classes generally are not available. These very experiences, however, are essential for the student to understand and function in the cultural ethos found in most colleges and universities.

In an effort to provide these experiences, institutions of higher education often conduct special activities for the culturally

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[25] Rachel D. Wilkinson, "Discovery in the Bronx," *Community College Programs for People Who Need College* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1970), p. 33.

[26] Gordon and Wilkerson, pp. 140-148.

different students. Such experiences as tours, trips to historical sights and museums, concerts, or "socials" have been used to narrow cultural gaps.

The United States Office of Education, in suggesting types of special services for the culturally different, has noted that some programs for these students are based in cultural centers separate from college direction, with students determining their activities. In addition to providing needed social contacts for the student, such cultural centers are supposed to serve as sources for dissemination of the program's activities to other students through publications, dramatic productions, art shows, open houses, and the like.[27] The main distinction between the college-sponsored cultural activities and the activities of the student cultural centers is that the culturally different students' own culture is exemplified and emphasized in the activities of the student centers.

Both types of cultural enrichment (that provided for the students and that which the students develop themselves) are helpful in assisting students to function effectively in higher education and in the broader society, both in terms of strengthening ethnic and racial pride and in terms of assisting minority groups in becoming more aware of the cultural symbols of middle class society.

8. Black Studies. The black American has recognized the inequalities which have existed for him in the educational institutions of our country. He has long attended schools without the opportunity to realize the many contributions of his race in the development of this society. As a result, the black American has often felt that his race has contributed little to the development of America.

Racial pride comes, in part, from identifying with the great leaders of one's race and contributions made by members of it. Black studies programs and courses in higher education deal specifically with these contributions as well as with the unique heritage and problems of Black Americans. Such programs create a climate which enables the Black disadvantaged to develop a healthy concept of themselves, "a concept which tells them that as individuals they have

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[27] Department of Health, Education and Welfare, "Special Services," p. 7.

dignity and worth, a concept which reflects confidence in the ultimate achievements of their goals."[28]

Until the late sixties, few Black studies programs or courses dealing specifically with Black culture were included in the regular college programs.[29] In larger colleges, the Black studies courses were generally placed under a separate department, with students determining selection of instructors. Black studies courses have proliferated in the last two years in colleges.[30] In a recent study, Lombardi concluded that the number of Black studies courses is greater in schools with higher Black enrollments, that students and instructors in these courses are mostly Black, and that favorable administration and board attitudes have a positive effect on enrollment in these courses.[31]

With the growing need for knowledge of the unique cultural heritage and contributions of Black Americans, it has become essential for them to have programs and courses in Black studies within institutions of higher education. These courses assist in strengthening racial and ethnic pride. The Black student in higher education may be given a sense of involvement and security in society from his involvement in Black studies. He can develop racial pride through an awareness that his ancestors contributed much to the growth and development of this country.

9. Special Instructional Practices. Since most of the culturally different come to institutions of higher education with academic deficiencies, it is important that instructional practices and programs be developed to meet these deficiencies. Standard techniques of presenting the subject matter of the disciplines are usually unsuccessful in motivating such students, thereby necessitating modified instructional practices. Such techniques and practices often include highly individualized instruction in communication skills along with the use of a

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[28]Joan Ferrante, *The Negro American: A Reading List for Elementary Teachers* (Glassboro, New Jersey: Educational Improvement Center, 1969), p. 8.

[29]John Lombardi, "Black Studies," *ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges*, No. 13 (1971): 7.

[30]Doris A. Meek, "Black Power and the Instructional Council," *Community College Programs for People Who Need College* (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Junior Colleges, 1970), p. 54.

[31]Lombardi, "Black Studies," p. 7.

wide variety of methods to facilitate learning in conventional subject matter courses.[32]

For example, Daytona Beach (Florida) Junior College has developed a guided studies program for all students admitted with academic deficiencies. Central Florida Junior College has a voluntary guided studies program for students who have been identified as low achievers on the basis of achievement tests and high school records. This program uses teachers who have expressed interest in the program and who have had a minimum of twelve years of experience in high school and junior colleges. In Chicago City College, a block plan has been used in teaching courses for low-achieving students where students take courses in speech, English, writing, and reading, along with one other course from ethics, biology, or social studies. Every effort is made to personalize instruction and counseling. A five-session noncredit survival seminar was developed by the College of the Mainland in Texas, where a counselor and reading specialist, along with regular teachers, prepared lessons in notetaking, reading, preparing for and taking tests, scheduling time for class assignments, study, and recreation.[33]

In some cases, junior colleges conduct classes "on-site" with the actual equipment and materials that the students will eventually be using for their jobs after graduation. In other instances, colleges train the student partially in the classroom and partially on-site.

10. Guidance and Counseling. Guidance and counseling services are an essential element in programs for the culturally different. These services assist in locating such students, in determining what pre-entrance competencies are necessary for entrance, and in assisting them in applying for financial aid. Such services also include diagnostic testing, a useful technique in placing students in the appropriate curricular offering of the institution.

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[32]Susan Koester, "Chicago City College: A Center for Innovation," *Community College Programs for People Who Need College* (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Junior Colleges, 1970), p. 62.

[33]B. Lamar Johnson, *Islands of Innovation Expanding: Changes in the Community College* (Beverly Hills, California: Glencoe Press, 1969), pp. 193-196.

Once students are enrolled, counselors follow their progress closely in order to determine if any curricular changes or modifications need to be made. As the students complete their programs, counselors make them aware of opportunities for employment or further formal education. Counselors may also be involved with designing and implementing follow-up services such as planning visits for students at senior colleges and maintaining contacts with industry, hospitals, and public agencies for placement.

A recent innovation in counseling and guidance services has been the use of the ombudsman who maintains relations between students and faculty, students and administration, and students and the institution. In effect, he acts the role of supra-counselor in being able to represent and negotiate on all fronts with the support of all college groups.[34]

Federally Sponsored Programs (USOE)

The increased attention given the culturally different student in the past few years by the federal government has resulted in a number of programs which have provided aid and assistance to many institutions of higher education and their culturally different populations. These programs have attempted to focus on areas of greatest need and include support for recruitment, special services, student aid, professional employment, curriculum development, teaching paraprofessionals, post-secondary vocational education, adult and continuing education, training teachers, research related to the culturally different, and library aid.

The following U.S. Office of Education programs and services have been developed to assist the culturally different in higher education. While some of these programs have appropriations which are far too small to make significant changes in the educational patterns of the culturally different (e.g., Upward Bound, Special Services, Student Aid), they have provided services in areas where previously little or no help was available.

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[34] Department of Health, Education and Welfare, "Special Services, pp. 37-38.

RELEVANT USOE PROGRAMS	EDUCATIONAL SERVICES
Talent Search Upward Bound Guidance and Counseling Aid	Recruitment of students; admissions policies; guidance and counseling
Special Services Program Student Tutoring via Work-Study	Special services
Federal Grants (EOG), loans, work-study; GI Bill and related veterans' programs	Student aid
EPDA institutes and scholarships for teachers	Employment of professionals from minority group backgrounds (faculty, guidance, administration) qualified to teach the culturally different
Bureau of Research funds	Curriculum development and development of new teaching methods, especially in fields such as Black-ethnic studies and urban studies
Funds from EPDA, ESEA, and other programs (i.e., Head Start Supplementary Training)	Teaching paraprofessionals
Funds available under VEA for operating costs of programs, equipment, teacher training, etc.	Post-secondary vocational education
Limited funds under HEA, Title I	Adult and continuing education
EPDA; to some extent NDEA IV graduate fellowships	Training teachers and other professionals to work with disadvantaged
Burea of Research	Educational research into problems of the culturally different
Developing Colleges (HEA, Title III); Facilities grants and loans; Higher education equipment grants (HEA Title, VI-A); College Housing Loan Program	Aid to institutions, including two-year colleges and predominantly Negro colleges
College Library Aid (HEA, Title II)	Aid to libraries at such colleges

AACJC Policy Statement on Programs for the Culturally Different in Two-Year Colleges

1. Policy Direction. A recent statement of policy with respect to the role of two-year colleges in serving the culturally different was formulated by the Associate Board of Directors of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges. This statement of policy maintained that one of the principal cures for poverty is education; that it is through education that many educationally, socially, and economically handicapped youth may be brought into the mainstream of American life.

In terms of commitment, the association resolved that two-year colleges should expand their role in helping poor students and youth who wish to take advantage of the opportunities for higher education. This includes all students whether they are white, Black, Puerto Rican, or Mexican American. Each two-year college should formulate its own orientation for commitment. The commitment should include special programs, practices, and procedures which will serve culturally different students. In terms of implementation, AACJC will continue to encourage and expand programs which it has initiated and which it has encouraged two-year colleges to develop. These programs include the Outreach Demonstration Projects, currently conducted in four urban colleges and coordinated nationally by AACJC.

AACJC has also encouraged specific institutional orientation through proposals in specific areas which include: (1) the development, replication, and testing of curriculum models in as many as ten community and junior colleges; (2) basic research improving various educational services to the disadvantaged, such as those fostered in the OEO-supported projects; (3) expanded research on the effect of campus site selection; (4) conferences on basic remedial/bridge programs in community and junior colleges; and (5) pilot work and staff development to prepare junior college personnel to carry out basic research and developmental projects in their programs for the culturally different.[35]

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[35] Edmund Gleazer, "Programs for the Disadvantaged: A Policy Statement of the AAJC," *Junior College Journal* 40 (1969): 3-4.

Examples of Compensatory Programs in Two-Year Colleges

1. Cuyahoga Community College. This public two-year college, opened in 1963, has served thousands of Clevelanders by providing university parallel and technical occupational courses. In addition, it has attempted to meet specific community needs through such projects as (1) college skills program, (2) Project Search (an educational counseling referral agency), (3) Project EVE (information, counseling, and referral service for adult women interested in continuing education, volunteer work, and employment), and (4) Project New Careers (training inner-city men and women within Cleveland). The New Careers aspect in particular has been aimed at easing the manpower shortage and improving services in health and welfare by restructuring job hiring; it has developed new approaches to the education and training of the undereducated, underemployed, and the unemployed which are geared to their specific life styles. Cuyahoga's programs have already had a strategic effect in Cleveland and serve as a standard model for other community college programs which are aimed specifically at serving community needs.[36]

2. Project Focus.[37] Project Focus is a continuation and extension of the Upward Bound program (preparatory program for low income students). This program seeks broad community participation through finding host families for its students. In particular, Project Focus has helped make the resources of two-year colleges available to Upward Bound students. It also has placed students in colleges in parts of the country which are new to them. For example, Peralta College (California), located in an all white, predominantly middle class community, received a number of Black students from Florida, Louisiana, and Texas after Project Focus assisted in locating host family relationships and work study positions for them in the area.

Many schools throughout the country have been involved in similar Project Focus activities. While the total number of students so

[36]Carl B. Stokes, *Social Action and the Community College* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1970), pp. 18-21.

[37]This project should not be confused with a project with the same title funded by the Kellogg Foundation for studying the reorganization of the then AAJC.

placed is small (only eighty students in twenty-five colleges during the 1968-69 academic year), Project Focus intends to expand four-fold in the 1969-70 school year.[38]

3. Florida Community Colleges. In Florida, community college programs designed to meet the educational needs of the disadvantaged student take the form of special courses and services. Of the twenty-four colleges reporting in a recent Florida survey, most had some form of compensatory education program consisting largely of specialized courses. These special courses were used in conjunction with special services at thirteen of the institutions and with regular courses at two of the colleges. Only at one school were all three available: the regular courses, special courses, and special services.[39]

4. Inner-City Project of Peralta. This project was a federally-sponsored demonstration project designed to be part of a nation-wide program to determine the capability of two-year colleges to meet the needs and problems of the inner city poor. Four centers were established in the poorer areas of the junior college district. Student and professional staffs were located at these centers to assist Blacks, Mexican Americans, and other ethnic group members by conducting short-term courses in legal rights, household management, child care, English, and a number of academic and career courses. The courses were conducted in various locations within the neighborhoods, such as churches and civic centers. In addition, a scholarship system was developed to provide financial aid for the inner city residents involved in the program.[40]

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[38]William S. Strauss, *From Upward Bound to the Junior College—The Focus Way* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1970), pp. 29-30.

[39]Michael I. Shaffer, Edward Boddy, and Winston T. Bridges, Jr., *Implementing the Open Door: Compensatory Education in Florida's Community Colleges* (Tallahassee, Florida: Florida Community Junior College Inter-Institutional Research Council, 1970), p. 25.

[40]Paul A. Elsner, *The Peralta College's Inner-City Project* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1970), pp. 1-34.

Summary

The foregoing review has described the nature of the compensatory practices and programs as they appear in the literature. We will now turn our attention to an empirical examination of the extent to which these practices and programs exist in public and private two-year colleges in the United States. We will also examine the admissions requirements, counseling services, and curricular offerings of two-year colleges in this country.

Survey Results

Methodological Considerations

1. Research Design. Given the earlier discussion of the comprehensive community college and compensatory education practices in institutions of higher education as currently described in the literature, our methodological considerations revolve around surveying the admissions policies, curricular offerings, and compensatory education practices of a representative sample of two-year colleges. (See Appendix A.)

A pre-coded questionnaire (see Appendix B) was developed for this study and sent to the chief administrative officer of those public two-year institutions participating in the annual research on "National Norms for Entering College Freshmen" conducted by the American Council on Education (ACE). The ACE data bank contains fifty-three public and private two-year colleges. These institutions, randomly selected from all two-year institutions in the United States, were placed in stratification cells by type of control and by size as reflected by first time enrollment (see Table 1). Since sampling from the stratification cells for two-year colleges was disproportionate to the population of these cells, the data obtained from institutions in each are differentially weighted. The number of institutions in each stratification cell, the cell weight applied to each institution as a consequence of residing in that cell, and the sample response of this

study by stratification cell are also given in Table 1.[41] In order to illustrate representativeness of the population of all two-year colleges in the United States, the data reported in the following section are based upon the weighted N as opposed to the actual N.

2. Data Analysis. The data analysis first considers admissions policies, admissions requirements, counseling services, and enrollment in curricular programs of two-year colleges in this country. The next section analyzes the number of public or private institutions which (1) have developed a special program for the academically disadvantaged, (2) have developed courses which could be classified as remedial or developmental, or (3) have developed special services, e.g., tutoring, counseling, and/or financial aid for those who are academically disadvantaged. The analysis also describes the specific nature of the programs and/or services for the minority group academically disadvantaged.[42]

Data Analysis

1. Admissions Policies. Almost 100 percent of our respondents in public two-year colleges indicate that they have open admissions for in-district students (see Table 2). However, 86 percent of these respondents require a high school diploma or equivalent, 27 percent have a minimum age requirement, 28 percent require test scores, 7 percent require an interview, 16 percent require a letter of recommendation, and 41 percent require a physical examination[43] (see Table 3). Thirty-four percent of public two-year colleges require only

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[41] The return response for this study was 90 percent. One advantage of the stratification design of this study is that it allows us to assume more reasonably that no severe biases obtain, given a high response rate. In other words, since the most crucial factors which differentiate between institutions have been controlled, institutions within stratification cells are, for all intents and purposes, interchangeable.

[42] Programs for the minority group academically disadvantaged are the focus in this analysis under the assumption that this group accurately represents the culturally different category previously defined.

[43] It may be, of course, that test scores, interviews, letters of recommendation, and physical examinations are required only for purposes of placement or counseling.

a high school diploma or equivalent; 5 percent have only an age requirement; 55 percent require both a high school diploma (or equivalent) and a minimum age, but nothing more.

As one would expect, less than 20 percent of the nonpublic two-year colleges have an open admissions policy (see Table 2) and 97 percent require at least a high school diploma or equivalent of of admission. In addition, it should be noted that 82 percent require test scores, and 81 percent require letters of recommendation for admission. Only 3 percent require either a high school diploma or minimum age for admission (see Table 3).

2. Counseling Services. Almost all public two-year colleges have some form of personal counseling services, academic counseling services, and vocational-occupational counseling services (see Table 4). In addition, 95 percent of these colleges have job placement counseling services, and 72 percent have job placement follow-up counseling services. These statistics may be compared with private two-year colleges in the ACE data bank sample. Of the private institutions, only a little over 60 percent provide vocational-occupational counseling and only a little over 40 indicate that they have job placement counseling. Furthermore, only 10 percent of the private institutions indicate that they have job placement follow-up counseling. In summary, some 95 percent of public two-year colleges indicate that they have personal, academic, vocational-occupational, and job placement counseling whereas approximately 28 percent of private two-year colleges have all of those services.

3. Curricular Offerings. Every public two-year college surveyed has an academic transfer program and an occupational associate degree program. In addition, a little over 75 percent of the public two-year colleges have an occupational certificate program. Almost 70 percent of the public institutions in the sample have a continuing education program; and 46 percent have students enrolled in developmental, preparatory, or remedial programs (see Table 5). Fourteen percent of the public schools in the sample have only transfer and associate degree occupational programs, and slightly over 25 percent of our sample have a transfer, occupational-associate degree, occupational-certificate and continuing education programs.

Forty percent of our sample of public two-year colleges have all of the occupational programs typically associated with the ideal-typic community college, i.e., academic, occupational-associate degree, occupational-certificate, continuing education, and developmental programs.

The overwhelming majority of private two-year colleges have an academic program and close to three-quarters of them have an occupational-associate degree program. Fourteen percent have an occupational certificate program and 9 percent have some form of continuing education program. Only 7 percent report a developmental program, and 9 percent report all of the above types of programs except the remedial.

4. Special Programs, Courses, or Services for the Minority Group Academically Disadvantaged. Close to 40 percent of the public two-year colleges surveyed have special programs for the academically disadvantaged as opposed to approximately one-fifth of the private two-year colleges (see Table 6). On the other hand, almost all of the public two-year colleges have developed special courses for the academically disadvantaged[44] while two-thirds of the private two-year colleges have such courses. Finally, almost all public two-year colleges and 66 percent of the private two-year colleges have developed special services for the academically disadvantaged. Almost 40 percent of the public two-year colleges have special programs, special courses, and special services for the academically disadvantaged, as opposed to 19 percent of private two-year colleges. However, all public two-year colleges and 76 percent of the private two-year colleges indicated that they had *either* a special program *or* special courses *or* special services for the academically disadvantaged.

It is interesting to note that 51 percent of the public two-year colleges with a comprehensive program indicated that they had a special program for the academically disadvantaged as opposed to 30 percent of those without a comprehensive program.

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[44] A discrepancy should be noted here: only 46 percent of the participating institutions indicated that they actually had students enrolled in a remedial program. This means that colleges either have remedial courses in which there is no enrollment, or that administrators do not consider a course as constituting a program.

5. Characteristics of Programs and Services for the Academically Disadvantaged. In this section we are specifically concerned with the nature of special programs and/or services for the minority group academically disadvantaged in public or private schools.[45]

a. Recruitment. Slightly over 35 percent of public two-year colleges have recruitment teams for the minority group academically disadvantaged (see Table 7). Of those private two-year colleges reporting these special programs, services, or courses for the academically disadvantaged, one-third report using recruitment teams. Three-fourths of the public two-year colleges reported using a list of community contacts to recruit minority group academically disadvantaged students, as opposed to approximately one-tenth of the private institutions (see Table 7).

b. Guidance, Counseling, and Instructional Services. Some 89 percent of the public two-year colleges reported guidance and counseling services above the ordinary for the minority group academically disadvantaged. Over 85 percent of the private two-year colleges reported this practice. With respect to special tutoring, again almost all (91 percent) of the public two-year colleges reported this practice, as opposed to slightly over 75 percent of the private two-year colleges. Of those institutions using regular faculty as tutors, 95 percent of the public two-year colleges and 89 percent of the private two-year colleges have this practice. Slightly over fifty-five percent of the public two-year colleges and almost 70 percent of the private two-year colleges utilized specially trained faculty in tutoring academically disadvantaged minority group students. Almost 80 percent of the public two-year colleges and all of the private two-year colleges used regular students in tutoring academically disadvantaged students. Interestingly enough, 65 percent of the public two-year colleges and 80 percent of the private two-year schools used advanced students in the program as tutors (see Table 8).

With respect to instruction, close to three-quarters of both public and private two-year colleges report the use of programmed instructional techniques. Over 85 percent of public two-year colleges and over 70 percent of private two-year colleges report the practice

[45] As the reader may note above, 100 percent of the public and 76 percent of the private institutions fall within this category.

of reduced course load for academically disadvantaged students. Slightly over half of the public and slightly under half of the private two-year colleges used liberalized probationary or readmission practices for minority group academically disadvantaged. Ninety percent of public and private two-year colleges provide instruction in the development of study skills to minority group academically disadvantaged students. All public two-year colleges with programs, courses, or services for the academically disadvantaged stress communication skills; 90 percent of private two-year colleges do the same. Of those public and private two-year colleges who report stressing communication skills, all stress reading skills. Slightly over 90 percent of the public and private two-year colleges stress writing skills. Over 75 percent of the public and private two-year colleges stress speaking skills. Eighty-three percent of public two-year colleges and close to 40 percent of the private two-year colleges stress listening skills. Sixty percent of the public and private two-year colleges stress the utilization of traditional English. Over half of the public two-year colleges and 45 percent of the private two-year colleges stress an understanding of the student's own dialect as a language system in their stress on communication skills for the minority group academically disadvantaged. Finally, 17 percent of public two-year colleges and 16 percent of private two-year colleges prepare special courses of particular ethnic studies for minority group academically disadvantaged students (see Table 9).

c. Financial Aid. Slightly over 90 percent of the public two-year colleges and 83 percent of private two-year colleges who have special programs, courses, or services for the academically disadvantaged report that they offer these students financial aid. Approximately 40 percent of both public and private two-year colleges reported aid to minority group disadvantaged in the form of federal scholarships. Slightly over 65 percent of the public two-year colleges and slightly over 45 percent of the private two-year colleges reported financial aid in the form of a federal guaranteed loan to academically disadvantaged minority group students. Approximately 80 percent of public two-year colleges and over 60 percent of private two-year colleges reported federal work study programs. Approximately 10 percent of public two-year colleges and slightly over 5 percent of private two-year colleges reported a federal co-op program at their institution. Seventeen percent of public two-year colleges and 27

percent of private two-year colleges reported other forms of federal aid to academically disadvantaged minority group students. Only 5 percent of public two-year colleges and no private two-year colleges reported receiving no federal aid of any kind for academically disadvantaged students (see Table 10).

Over 60 percent of public two-year colleges and 17 percent of private two-year colleges report that their academically disadvantaged minority group students receive some form of state scholarship aid. Almost 30 percent of the academically disadvantaged minority group students in public two-year colleges and 7 percent of such students in private two-year colleges receive the benefits of a state guaranteed loan. Over 40 percent of academically disadvantaged minority students at public two-year colleges and 7 percent of such students at private two-year colleges have some form of state work-study grants. However, only 2 percent of students at public two-year colleges and no students at private two-year colleges who are academically disadvantaged minority group students are part of a state co-op program. Three percent of academically disadvantaged minority group students in public two-year colleges receive some other form of state aid. In sum, slightly over 80 percent of the academically disadvantaged minority group students in both public and private two-year colleges receive some form of state financial aid (see Table 11).

All two-year colleges, both public and private, responding to our survey questionnaire indicated that the institution provided financial support to minority group academically disadvantaged students whom they enrolled in special programs, courses, or services. Over 60 percent of public two-year colleges and over 50 percent of private two-year colleges gave much of this aid in the form of institutional scholarships. Slightly over 20 percent of public two-year colleges and 17 percent of private two-year colleges aided academically disadvantaged minority group students in the form of an institutional guaranteed loan. Approximately 40 percent of public two-year colleges and almost half of the private two-year colleges provided financial aid in the form of institutional work-study programs. Some 5 percent of public two-year colleges and 20 percent of private two-year colleges rendered financial aid in the form of an institutional co-op program (see Table 12).

Slightly over 82 percent of public two-year colleges and all private two-year colleges reported that some form of private aid was dispensed among academically disadvantaged minority group students. For example, slightly over 50 percent of public two-year colleges and 44 percent of private two-year colleges reported that scholarship aid to academically disadvantaged minority group students came from private sources. Guaranteed loans from private sources were reported in 16 percent of public two-year colleges and 13 percent of private two-year colleges. Some 10 percent of public two-year colleges and over 25 percent of private two-year colleges reported that work-study programs were supported from private sources. Although no public two-year college reported that a co-operative program stemming from private sources existed at their institution, 7 percent of private two-year colleges indicated that they had such a program (see Table 13).

d. Training Programs for Faculty. As noted in our discussion above, many schools have programs for training faculty who deal with academically disadvantaged students. In response to questions regarding whether an institution had any special instructional or training programs to assist their faculty in working with academically deficient students, some 28 percent of public two-year colleges and 45 percent of the private two-year colleges responded affirmatively. Unfortunately, we did not ask if any of their faculty had previous training which would assist them in working with such students. We doubt that many such programs exist in contemporary university graduate programs.

Summary, Conclusions, and Implications

As noted earlier, the public two-year college in its exemplary (comprehensive) form is an open admissions institution characterized by diverse curricular offerings (transfer, occupational-associate degree, and occupational-certificate), with a heavy emphasis on guidance and counseling, as well as an emphasis on compensatory and continuing education.

One purpose of this paper was to review the literature in higher education concerning compensatory education, concentrating on those programs and practices that assist culturally different students in entering institutions of higher education, as well as those

programs which assist them in succeeding once they have enrolled. Accordingly, we reviewed examples of recruitment, admissions, and financial aid practices that serve to assist these students to enter institutions of higher education. We have also reviewed examples of instructional programs in basic communication skills, tutorial programs, summer programs, evaluation, cultural enrichment programs, ethnic studies programs, and special guidance and counseling services designed to assist the culturally different once they have enrolled.

The major focus of this study has been, however, to empirically examine by a survey of community colleges the nature and extent to which these compensatory practices and programs exist in two-year colleges for the minority group academically disadvantaged.

Utilizing a sampling design developed by the research staff of the American Council on Education, the conclusions of our survey may be considered (subject to the normal limitations of survey research) as representative of all two-year colleges in this country.

It is praiseworthy that the public two-year colleges in this country maintain the guidance and counseling services which characterize the exemplary community college. As noted in the analysis, almost all two-year colleges have personal, academic, vocational-occupational, and job placement counseling. This finding is encouraging, particularly in an institution characterized by such a variety of student interests, aptitudes, and abilities, where counseling is critical.

One discouraging element in our results, however, is that only 40 percent of the public two-year colleges in this country have the curricular offerings and admissions policies expected of public community colleges. Again, although almost all public two-year colleges state that they have an open admissions policy, almost 45 percent of these institutions require more than a high school diploma (or its equivalent) or some minimum age standard for admission.

Unfortunately, our methodology does not allow us to comment as to the effectiveness of current compensatory education programs and practices in either public or private two-year colleges. However, in reviewing the analysis of data summarizing the extent of programs and services, it does appear that public two-year colleges need additional emphasis on recruitment teams from the college to go into the ghettos. They also need to devote more resources in training faculty for dealing with minority group academically disadvantaged

students. Finally, it would seem that since only 17 percent of the public two-year colleges have developed special courses in ethnic studies, more is needed in this area, particularly in view of the relationship of pride in one's self (one's culture) to academic achievement.

It is interesting to note that although one-fifth of the private two-year colleges had special programs for the academically disadvantaged, two-thirds of these schools indicated that they had developed special courses for the academically disadvantaged. Although we cannot expect private institutions to be as concerned with the academically disadvantaged as public institutions, it is reasonable to expect that they should evidence some concern for the problems of the minority group academically disadvantaged. From the data presented above, one may conclude that many are evidencing that concern.

It is both disappointing and encouraging that approximately 40 percent of the public two-year colleges indicate that they have special programs for the academically disadvantaged. It is encouraging because the percentage of public two-year colleges having such programs has increased dramatically in the last ten years; it is disappointing in that only 40 percent of the public two-year colleges have these programs. Indeed, the development of innovative pedagogical techniques and programs for the academically disadvantaged is supposedly a mark of distinction for the two-year college in American higher education. It is in the development of such programs that the public two-year college can fulfill a vitally needed function—that of extending the opportunity for upward mobility to many of those who feel "shut out" of any chance to "make it" in this society through legitimate channels. It is through the development of an effective and innovative compensatory education program, effective not only in assisting students in their development once they are in the institution, but also in drawing such students into the college, that the two-year college can assist in the maintenance of social stability in this society. Indeed, if public two-year colleges in this country are to adequately fulfill their mission, much more effort must go into assisting these schools in widening their doors and in developing programs of remedial education.

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TABLE 1

SAMPLE STRATIFICATION CELLS AND WEIGHTS FOR PUBLIC AND PRIVATE TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Cell Definition[a]	Population (1970)	Number Used In ACE Norms	Sample Response to Current Study	Cell Weights[b]
Public				
Enrollment less than 500	408	6	6	68
Enrollment 500-999	209	5	5	42
Enrollment 1000 or more	169	17	14	12
Private				
Enrollment less than 100	61	3	3	20
Enrollment 100-245	102	10	10	10
Enrollment 250 or more	69	12	11	6

[a]Enrollment figures are based on the total number of first-time, full-time entrants.

[b]This weight is the ratio between the number of institutions in the population within the stratification cells and the number of institutions in the sample corresponding to those cells.

TABLE 2

STATED OPEN ADMISSIONS FOR IN-DISTRICT, OUT-OF-DISTRICT, AND OUT-OF-STATE STUDENTS IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Public Two-Year Colleges Having Stated Open Admissions for	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent	Weighted N	Percent	Weighted N
In-District Students	99	774	15	34
Out-of-District Students	89	696	10	22
Out-of-State Students	80	628	10	22

TABLE 3

ADMISSIONS CRITERIA FOR TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Admissions Criteria	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent	Weighted N	Percent	Weighted N
High School Diploma or Equivalent	86	696	97	220
Minimum Age	27	214	0	0
High School Grade Average	0	0	34	76
Test Scores	28	218	82	186
Interview	7	54	41	92
Letter of Recommendation	16	122	81	182
Physical Examination	41	322	95	214
Require High School Diploma or Certificate Only	34	264	3	6
Require Minimum Age Only	5	42	0	0
Require Only High School Diploma or Minimum Age	55	434	3	6

TABLE 4

COUNSELING SERVICES AT TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Counseling Services	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent	Weighted N	Percent	Weighted N
Personal Counseling	99	774	86	200
Academic Counseling	99	774	100	226
Vocational-Occupational Counseling	99	774	61	138
Job Placement Counseling	95	750	44	100
Job Placement Follow-Up Counseling	72	562	10	22

TABLE 5

CURRICULAR OFFERINGS IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Curricular Offerings	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent	Weighted N	Percent	Weighted N
Academic (Transfer or Pre-professional)	100	786	93	210
Occupational (Associate Degree)	100	786	70	158
Occupational (Certificate)	76	598	14	32
Continuing Education (Adult, Special Interest Courses)	69	542	9	20
Developmental, Preparatory, or Remedial	46	358	7	16
Only Academic and Occupational Associate Programs	14	110	49	110
All Programs but Developmental	26	202	9	20
All Programs	39	304	0	0

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE OF PUBLIC AND NONPUBLIC TWO-YEAR COLLEGES WITH SPECIAL PROGRAMS, COURSES OR SERVICES FOR THE ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED

	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
Special Programs	39	290	24	48
Special Courses	99	774	59	112
Special Services	100	774	66	134
Have Special Programs, Courses, and Services	37	290	19	42

TABLE 7

SPECIAL RECRUITMENT SERVICES FOR THE MINORITY GROUP ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

Services	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
Recruitment Teams	36	266	28	26
Use of Community Contracts	75	464	12	10

*For private two-year colleges, only those institutions reporting special programs, courses, or services for the academically disadvantaged are included in this table. Since all public two-year colleges reported that they had special programs, courses, or services for the academically disadvantaged, the statistics provided may be generalized to all public two-year colleges in the country.

TABLE 8

SPECIAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING FOR THE MINORITY GROUP ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

Services	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
Special Guidance and Counseling	89	554	88	118
Special Tutoring	91	664	76	100
Use of Regular Faculty in Tutoring	95	440	89	80
Use of Specially Trained Faculty in Tutoring	56	134	67	40
Use of Regular Students for Tutoring	77	272	100	76
Use of Advanced Students in Program for Tutoring	65	212	80	40

*See note, Table 7.

TABLE 9

INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES FOR THE MINORITY GROUP ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

Instructional Services	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
Use of Programmed Instruction	72	482	67	62
Use of Reduced Course Loads	86	640	72	104
Liberalized Probationary or Readmission Practices	58	388	46	48
Attention to Development of Study Skills	89	628	93	134
Stress Communication Skills	100	774	92	114
Stress Reading Skills	100	732	100	84
Stress Writing Skills	91	[illegible]	94	88
Stress Speaking Skills	77	452	78	56
Stress Listening Skills	83	544	38	22
Stress the Utilization of Traditional English	58	358	62	32
Stress Understanding of Student's Own Dialect	52	352	45	46
Develop Special Courses in Ethnic Studies	17	102	16	16

*See note, Table 7.

TABLE 10

NATURE AND EXTENT OF FEDERALLY FUNDED FINANCIAL AID TO MINORITY GROUP ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

Type of Federal Aid	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
Federal Scholarships	39	304	39	58
Federal Guaranteed Loan	66	520	48	72
Federal Work-Study	79	622	61	92
Federal Co-op	10	80	7	10
Other Federal Aid	17	134	27	40
No Federal Aid	5	42	0	0

*See note, Table 7.

TABLE 11

NATURE AND EXTENT OF STATE FUNDED FINANCIAL AID TO MINORITY GROUP ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

Type of State Aid	Public		Nonpublic	
	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
State Scholarships	61	4 480	17	26
State Guaranteed Loan	29	224	7	10
State Work-Study	42	328	7	10
State Co-op	2	12	0	0
Other State Aid	3	24	0	0
No State Aid	16	122	13	20

*See note, Table 7.

TABLE 12

NATURE AND EXTENT OF INSTITUTIONAL FINANCIAL AID TO THE MINORITY GROUP ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

	Public		Nonpublic	
Type of Institutional Aid	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
Institutional Scholarships	63	494	51	76
Institutional Guaranteed Loan	21	164	17	26
Institutional Work-Study	39	304	45	68
Institutional Co-op	5	36	20	30
Other Institutional Aid	5	36	13	20
No Institutional Aid	0	0	0	0

*See note, Table 7.

TABLE 13

NATURE AND EXTENT OF PRIVATELY FUNDED AID TO THE MINORITY GROUP ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES*

	Public		Nonpublic	
Type of Private Aid	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N	Percent Affirmative	Weighted N
Private Scholarship	52	406	44	66
Private Guaranteed Loan	16	122	13	20
Private Work-Study	10	80	27	40
Private Co-op	0	0	7	10
Other Private Aid	10	80	0	0
No Private Aid	9	68	0	0

*See note, Table 7.

APPENDIX A:

List of Colleges in the Sample

John E. Rouse, Pres.
Anderson College
Anderson, South Carolina

Douglas D. Perkins, Pres.
Bay Path Junior College
Longmeadow, Massachusetts

Sidney Silverman, Pres.
Bergen Community College
Paramus, New Jersey

Robert A. Davis, Pres.
Brevard College
Brevard, North Carolina

Rhea M. Eckel, Pres.
Cazenovia College
Cazenovia, New York

Chester H. Gausman, Pres.
Central Nebraska Technical College
Hastings, Nebraska

Bruce E. Whitaker, Pres.
Chowan College
Murfreesboro, North Carolina

Ivan Crookshanks, Supt. Pres.
College of the Sequoias
Visalia, California

Kurt R. Schmeller, Pres.
CUNY-Queensborough College
Bayside, New York

Sr. Mary Lourdes Michel, Pres.
Cullman College
Cullman, Alabama

Sr. M. R. Pendergast, Pres. Dean
Donnelly College
Kansas City, Kansas

W. Floyd Scott, Dean
Eastern Iowa Community College
Muscatine Campus
Muscatine, Iowa

William Edward Leads, Pres.
Forest Park Community College
St. Louis, Missouri

H. A. Gardner, Pres.
Freed Hardeman College
Henderson, Tennessee

Cruce Stark, Pres.
Grayson County Junior College
Denison, Texas

Herman A. Heise, Pres.
Indian River Junior College
Fort Pierce, Florida

Harold E. Wilson, Pres.
Itasca State Junior College
Grand Rapids, Minnesota

Harry K. Miller, Jr., Pres.
Keystone Junior College
LaPlume, Pennsylvania

W. Lamar Fly, Pres.
Kishwaukee College
Malta, Illinois

Wayne Rodehorst, Pres.
Lakeland Community College
Mentor, Ohio

Glenn G. Gooder, Pres.
Los Angeles City College
Los Angeles, California

Samuel R. Neel, Jr., Pres.
Manatee Junior College
Bradenton, Florida

Leslie Koltai, Pres.
Metropolitan Junior College
Kansas City, Missouri

Albert N. Cox, Pres.
Midway Junior College
Midway, Kentucky

L. A. Foster, Pres.
Missouri Baptist College
Hannibal, Missouri

P. A. Edwards, Dean
Morristown College
Morristown, Tennessee

W. Burkette Raper, Pres.
Mount Olive Junior College
Mount Olive, North Carolina

Ernest Notar, Pres.
Niagara County Community College
Niagara Falls, New York

J. Louis Stokes, Pres.
Utica Junior College
Utica, Mississippi

J. D. Moore, Pres.
Victoria College
Victoria, Texas

Sr. Mary Pachomia, Pres.
Villa Maria College of Buffalo
Buffalo, New York

Edward L. Fleckenstein, Pres.
Voorhees Technical Institute
New York, New York

Theodore Nicksick, Jr., Pres.
Wharton County Junior College
Wharton, Texas

*Budd E. Smith, Pres.
Wingate College
Wingate, North Carolina

Clifton W. Emery, Jr., Pres.
Worcester Junior College
Worcester, Massachusetts

W. Donald Olsen, Pres.
Worthington State Junior College
Worthington, Minnesota

D. Walker
Yuba College
Marysville, California

Sinclair Orendorff, Pres.
Northwest Community College
Powell, Wyoming

Frederic B. Viaux, Pres.
Garland Junior College
Boston, Massachusetts

T. L. Neely, Pres.
North Greenville Junior College
Tigerville, South Carolina

Richard C. Richardson, Jr., Pres.
Northampton County Area Community College
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

John J. Skillman, Jr., Pres.
Packer Collegiate Institute, Junior College of the
Brooklyn, New York

Frederick C. Ferry, Jr., Pres.
Pine Manor Junior College
Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts

*Paul G. Preus, Pres.
Quinsigamond Community College
Worcester, Massachusetts

*These colleges did not respond to the questionnaire.

J. R. Burgess, Jr., Pres.
Reinhardt College
Waleska, Georgia

Andrew Junkin, Pres.
Schreiner Institute
Kerrville, Texas

Marvin C. Knudson, Pres.
Sinclair Community College
Dayton, Ohio

Sr. M. Borgia Fehlig, Pres.
Springfield College
Springfield, Illinois

*W. R. Kunsela, President
SUNY Agricultural and Tech. College
Delhi, New York

Ralph J. Jalkanen, Pres.
Suomi College
Hancock, Michigan

T. A. Lawson, Pres.
Theodore A. Lawson State Junior College
Birmingham, Alabama

University of Maine
Augusta, Maine

University of Missouri
St. Louis, Missouri

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

SURVEY OF TWO-YEAR PROGRAMS FOR THE ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED

PART I. BASIC INFORMATION

Please indicate your response by circling the appropriate number.

		YES	NO
1.	Does your institution have an open admissions policy?		
	a. for in-district students	1	2
	b. for out-of-district students	1	2
	c. for out-of-state students	1	2
2.	Which of the following are required for admission to your institution? (Please circle all that apply)		
	a. High school diploma or equivalent	1	2
	b. Minimum age (_____)	1	2
	c. High School grade average (_____)	1	2
	d. Test Scores	1	2
	e. Interview	1	2
	f. Letter of recommendation	1	2
	g. Physical examination	1	2
	h. Other (please specify) (_____)	1	2
3.	Does your institution have any of the following counseling services?		
	a. Personal	1	2
	b. Academic	1	2
	c. Vocational-occupational	1	2
	d. Job placement	1	2
	e. Job placement follow-up	1	2

Please answer questions 4 through 9 either from your records or from your general knowledge. Please enter "0" if the answer is none. (It is not necessary to make a special survey for this study.) Indicate the accuracy of your answer by circling one of the following:

A – VERY ACCURATE
B – REASONABLY ACCURATE
C – ROUGH ESTIMATE

			Accuracy Estimate
4.	In the Fall of 1970, how many students (full-time and part-time) were enrolled in your institution?	_____	A B C
	Of this number, what percent were enrolled in the following curriculum programs:		
	a. Academic (transfer or preprofessional)	_____ %	A B C
	b. Occupational (associate degree)	_____ %	A B C
	c. Occupational (certificate)	_____ %	A B C
	d. Continuing Education (Adult, special interest courses)	_____ %	A B C
	e. Developmental, Preparatory, or Remedial	_____ %	A B C

Accuracy Estimate

5. During the 1969-70 academic year in the TRANSFER program, what percent of your students (full-time and part-time)

a. transferred to another college	_____%	A B C
b. transferred to the OCCUPATIONAL curriculum	_____%	A B C
c. withdrew for employment related to their schooling	_____%	A B C
d. withdrew for employment not related to their schooling	_____%	A B C
e. withdrew because of academic failure	_____%	A B C
f. withdrew for other reasons	_____%	A B C

If your institution has no OCCUPATIONAL program, please skip to question 7.

6. During the 1969-70 academic year in the OCCUPATIONAL program (degree and certificate), what percent of your students (full-time and part-time)

a. transferred to another college	_____%	A B C
b. transferred to the TRANSFER program	_____%	A B C
c. withdrew for employment related to their schooling	_____%	A B C
d. withdrew for employment not related to their schooling	_____%	A B C
e. withdrew because of academic failure	_____%	A B C
f. withdrew for other reasons	_____%	A B C

7. In the Fall of 1970, how many MINORITY GROUP* students (full-time and part-time) were enrolled in your institution? _____ A B C

If your institution has less than 10 minority group students, please skip to question 10.

Of the MINORITY GROUP students enrolled, what percent were enrolled in the following curricular programs?

a. Academic (transfer or preprofessional)	_____%	A B C
b. Occupational (associate degree)	_____%	A B C
c. Occupational (certificate)	_____%	A B C
d. Continuing Education (Adult, special interest courses)	_____%	A B C
e. Developmental, Preparatory, or Remedial	_____%	A B C

8. During the 1969-70 academic year in the TRANSFER program, what percent of your MINORITY GROUP students (full-time and part-time)

a. transferred to another college	_____%	A B C
b. transferred to the OCCUPATIONAL curriculum	_____%	A B C
c. withdrew for employment related to their schooling	_____%	A B C
d. withdrew for employment not related to their schooling	_____%	A B C
e. withdrew because of academic failure	_____%	A B C
f. withdrew for other reasons	_____%	A B C

If your institution has no OCCUPATIONAL program, please skip to question 10.

*Those students who have Spanish surnames, are Black or American Indian.

		Accuracy Estimate
9.	During the 1969-70 academic year in the OCCUPATIONAL program (degree and certificate), what percent of your MINORITY GROUP students (full-time and part-time)	
	a. transferred to another college	_____% A B C
	b. transferred to the TRANSFER program	_____% A B C
	c. withdrew for employment related to their schooling	_____% A B C
	d. withdrew for employment not related to their schooling	_____% A B C
	e. withdrew because of academic failure	_____% A B C
	f. withdrew for other reasons	_____% A B C

		YES	NO
10.	Is there a post-secondary technical-vocational school within one hour travel time of your institution?	1	2

11.	Please estimate the percentage of your student body who predominantly use the following means of transportation to arrive at your institution:	
	a. walk	_____%
	b. public transportation	_____%
	c. privately owned vehicle	_____%

PART II. SPECIAL PROGRAMS, COURSES, OR SERVICES FOR THE ACADEMICALLY DISADVANTAGED

The following questions relate to special programs, courses, or services which some institutions have developed as a consequence of recent national attention on the academically disadvantaged, i.e., on those students who do not normally qualify for degree programs.

		No. of Minority Group Students	No. of Other Students
1.	APPROXIMATELY how many such students are enrolled at your institution? (If none, please so indicate.)	_____	_____

		YES	NO
2.	Has your institution:		
	a. developed a special program for the academically disadvantaged?	1	2
	b. developed courses which could be classified as remedial or developmental?	1	2
	c. developed special services, e.g., tutoring, counseling, financial aid for those who are academically disadvantaged?	1	2

If the responses to all questions in item two (2) above were NO, please fold this questionnaire and return it in the envelope provided. If not, please continue.

	No. of Minority Group Students	No. of Other Students
3. APPROXIMATELY how many students have you enrolled in a Special Program for the academically disadvantaged? (A program which is distinct from the regular college program.)		
Fall, '69	_____	_____
Fall, '70	_____	_____
4. APPROXIMATELY how many students who are enrolled in the regular program are enrolled in developmental or remedial courses in addition to the regular programs? (Please do not include those in 3.)	_____	_____

(If your institution had no special program in the 1969-70 academic year, please skip to question 6.)

5. Please ESTIMATE the number of students in the special program for the academically disadvantaged in the 1969-70 academic year who:

a. dropped out of school	_____	_____
b. transferred into:	_____	_____
Transfer program	_____	_____
Occupational: degree program	_____	_____
Occupational: certificate program	_____	_____
Continuing education program	_____	_____

6. Which of the following items are included in programs and/or services for the MINORITY GROUP academically disadvantaged?

	YES	NO
a. Recruitment teams	1	2
b. List of community contacts for "leads" to minority group students	1	2
c. Lower admissions requirements	1	2
d. Extra counseling and guidance	1	2
e. Special tutoring (if YES, please identify the kinds of persons utilized as tutors)		
Regular faculty	1	2
Special faculty	1	2
Regular students	1	2
Advanced students in the program	1	2
f. Programmed instruction	1	2
g. Reduced course loads	1	2
h. Liberalized probationary or readmission practices	1	2
i. Instruction in development of study skills	1	2
j. Special course in particular ethnic studies	1	2
k. Stress on communication skills	1	2

6. (continued)

	YES	NO
(If YES, please indicate particular areas)		
Reading	1	2
Writing	1	2
Speaking	1	2
Listening	1	2
Utilization of traditional English	1	2
Understanding of student's own dialect as a language system	1	2

1. Financial aid
(Please indicate sources and type of aid by circling as many as apply below.)

	Type of Aid					
Source	Scholarship	Guaranteed Loan	Work Study	Co-op	Other	None
Federal	1	2	3	4	5	6
State	1	2	3	4	5	6
Institutional	1	2	3	4	5	6
Private	1	2	3	4	5	6

7. What (in your opinion) are the THREE MAJOR REASONS for attrition of MINORITY GROUP Students?

(Circle three reasons only.)

a. Inadequate motivation
b. Inadequate academic ability
c. Lack of parental support
d. Disciplinary problems
e. Inadequate institutional support of students
f. Inadequate qualified administrative staff
g. Lack of qualified faculty
h. Inadequate finances (student)
i. Inadequate finances (institution)
j. Inadequate emotional stability or immaturity
k. Lack of supportive peer relationships

8. Do you have any special instructional or training programs to assist your faculty to work with academically deficient students?

YES	NO
1	2

Name of individual completing this questionnaire:

_____

Title: _____

Phone number: _____

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OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES TODAY AND IN 1980*

Lewis R. Fibel

It is a pleasure for me to be here today. This subject is one to which I have devoted much thought. I can offer as objective qualifications my twenty years of experience in this field and my most recent experience with the American Association of Junior Colleges which demolished some of my parochial prejudices and gave me an insight into the national situation.

I've been asked to "tell it like it is." This is extremely difficult. No one knows it like it is, only as he sees it. Occupational education in the community college, perhaps all education, suffers from a lack of systematic data collection and inconcise analysis. There are few good sources to turn to. What I shall say, then, is gathered from personal observation, not particularly scientific, and reflects many personal prejudices. I shall not repeatedly intrude into my remarks, "I think," "I believe," "in my opinion"; you can insert them appropriately.

I shall use the term "occupational education" generically to include any educational activity that includes job preparation as one of its objectives. Thus, I wish to subsume, "vocational education," "technical education," and any other derivative terms under the general one.

Consideration of occupational education in the community college must derive from the broader concept of the role of the community college. The ultimate rationale for the existence of the community college is to extend educational opportunities. This is fundamental—so fundamental, in fact, that I would advise a nonbeliever to look elsewhere for a job.

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Educational opportunity can be extended by making it more accessible in terms of geography, finance, admissions policy, and program.

The principle of geographic accessibility is to provide a college facility within commuting distance, roughly one hour travel time, or to make appropriate arrangements for student housing. This, obviously, has implications related to specific programs, and I shall return to that later.

The development of state plans and state systems of community colleges has been a big factor in increasing geographic accessibility. Noteworthy accomplishments have been achieved in Florida, California, and New York. This is one of the legal mandates to the new State Board for Community Colleges in Maryland. Many other states are also working constructively toward tnis goal.

The principle of financial accessibility provides that the opportunity for a college education shall not be precluded due to a lack of sufficient funds on the part of the individual. New York City, by providing tuition-free instruction at the community colleges, certainly recognizes the principle. I'm not convinced, however, that omission of tuition is universally desirable. In any case, many of you will appreciate that frequently it is insufficient. The cost of fees, books, lunches, and car fare may prove to be a financial barrier to many. Further, if the state decides to encourage the location of some more unusual occupational programs at selected colleges, the need of subsidy for housing and board can become significant. Finally, the financial support to the family, lost if the child elects college rather than working, must also be considered.

Having a system of community colleges within commuting distance of every student in the state, and supported by a sound student financial assistance program, would indeed measurably extend opportunity for educational experiences. However, it would not be sufficient reason for the establishment of community colleges, per se, unless accompanied by a liberal admissions policy. The principle here is that the community college should admit all students who could profit by the instruction offered. Unless the community college is admitting students who would not be admissable to other public colleges, it fails to perform a unique role. This does not preclude also admitting students who would be eligible for admission to four-year

colleges, but does suggest an additional, supplemental function for the community college.

The liberal admissions policy, often called "open-door admission" is frequently misunderstood. It does not mean that any student shall be admitted to any curriculum or to any course. It does not mean the right to fail. On the contrary, the college, the city, and the state have the right to restrict admissions only to programs where the student has a reasonable chance of success, and the responsibility to see that a comprehensive counseling program is provided to accomplish this.

Lastly, all of the previous factors would still accomplish relatively little, if a broad spectrum of programs compatible with the interests, achievements, and aptitudes of these additional students were not offered. The list of programs that thus might be offered by a community college is a long one, and no individual college can or should offer all of them. From the list, each college can choose those programs for which it has special competencies, bearing in mind the contributions of other institutions in the community. It should be stressed that a community college has no privilege of monopoly in any of these areas. All of the functions are carried out by others, and there should ensue a healthy competition to determine which will ultimately operate most effectively and economically.

A community college may offer a transfer program providing the first two years of study in the liberal arts and sciences or in preprofessional work. The graduate of this program should be qualified to transfer to a four-year college to complete the requirements for a baccalaureate degree. The majority, but not all, of students enrolled in community college transfer programs will not have demonstrated the abilities requisite for admission as freshmen to four-year colleges; therefore, it devolves upon the community college to devise alternate and innovative strategies of instruction to reach these students.

A community college may offer a remedial or developmental program to provide opportunity for a student to qualify for admission to the transfer program. This narrow approach has not been very successful; a broader approach is preferable.

A community college may offer a general studies program intended neither for transfer nor for specific vocational goals. However, most students who enroll in this program have latent ambitions and

become disappointed when they ultimately learn of the restrictions inherent in this program.

A community college may offer a spectrum of occupational programs. These will offer entry into a variety of jobs, differing in the kind and amount of necessary preliminary training. However, each program will meet all of the following objectives: (1) the graduate will be prepared for employment in the field for which he has been trained with only a minimum of additional on-the-job experience; (2) the graduate will have had the education to be potentially both horizontally and vertically mobile and to be adaptable to technological change within his field of employment; and (3) the graduate will have had education to enable him to cope more successfully with his personal and civic problems. I will discuss other aspects of occupational education more fully later.

A community college may offer a remedial or developmental program to provide opportunity for a student to qualify for admission to an occupational program. This is best done when coordinated with the remedial program for transfer and when coupled with extensive vocational guidance and information.

A community college may offer adult education or community services. This may comprise courses, symposia, lectures, exhibits, art shows, music, or drama, or may take still other forms. It may parallel the work of the "regular" sessions or may be different. It may be offered in any place and at any time. It may contribute to the vocational, avocational, or cultural interests of the students. It may exist for its own sake or may provide a bridge to other programs of the college.

Thus by being geographically and financially accessible, by having a liberal admissions policy, and by offering a variety of programs, the community college can be an important instrument in the extension of educational opportunity. Further, occupational education is perhaps the single most significant and distinctive facet of this package.

With this as background, let me now turn more extensively to a discussion of occupational education in the community college. Some differentiation can be made within the field on the basis of the level of the position for which training is supplied. A higher level position usually implies more sophisticated knowledge and skills to be

imparted, and generally requires a longer period of formal education. The level of education most commonly offered in the community college is that identified as producing technicians or middle manpower. Definitions of the level serve no particularly useful purpose. Those of you with teaching experience at Pennsylvania community colleges readily identify the level with that of the associate-degree programs of that institution. If you should journey to California, you would find some differences in the term. In concept, in any event, we are dealing with positions that are intermediate between professionals and craftsmen. This is the predominant type of occupational education in the community college; and, in addition, the community college is rapidly becoming the predominant type of institution to offer this type of training. It is on this field that I shall focus in the main.

Parenthetically, however, it should be said that community colleges are concerning themselves to a greater extent with programs to prepare people for lower level positions as skilled and sometimes semi-skilled personnel. It's common for a value to be placed on the term "level," and for "lower-level" to be equated with "noncollegiate." I can't see that the argument has much merit. More pertinent, I believe, is the fact that community colleges have not been particularly successful in this type of training.

The variety of middle manpower occupational programs in community colleges is very large. American Junior Colleges lists in the appendix over 100 major kinds, and, each month, in the *Occupational Education Bulletin,** there are reports from colleges of new ones to be added to the list.

It may be informative to give some idea of the range of programs, including the mention of some that are either relatively new or relatively scarce. The State of Pennsylvania probably offers as great a variety as any state; many will be familiar to you.

In the industrial field, the technologies related respectively to civil, mechanical, and electrical engineering remain the workhorses. Electromechanical technology is a noteworthy addition. Laboratory oriented programs in chemistry are long standing, but ones in physics and biology are newer.

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*Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges (Washington) as a part of their project to assist in the development of occupational education in the two-year colleges. (Editor's note.)

There are also emerging programs geared to a specific industry, e.g., aviation or automotive, and a group of exotics such as numerical control, oceanography, and nuclear power technology.

In the health field, there has been wide acceptance for programs to train nurses and the various dental auxiliaries, less so for medical laboratory or X-ray technicians. Significantly, however, there are over forty other distinguishable programs in the health field including ones to prepare surgery technicians, medical emergency personnel, ward managers, inhalation therapy assistants, and biomedical electronic technicians.

In the business field, there are many programs in accounting, marketing, and secretarial areas. Most noteworthy, however, is the rapid growth of programs in data processing and computers. Also evident are specialized programs for banking, insurance, and real estate interests.

The idea of this sort of training for public service is, in its entirety, relatively new, although by this time there have been enough programs established in the police field for it to be commonplace. Programs are beginning to develop in fire science, corrections, traffic safety, urban planning, and others.

Add to these four general areas a scattering of programs in agriculture and the applied arts, and there are few occupations that are not affected.

The basic need for technicians has risen from changes taking place in our society. Some of these have been identified by Norman Harris of the University of Michigan:

- —the increasing complexity of everyday life in an urban, industrialized society.
- —the implosion of technical and scientific knowledge which has characterized the past four decades.
- —the alarming increase in sophistication and complexity of occupations at all levels.
- —the fact that in our society education stands between man and his job—that lack of education is a barrier between men and jobs.
- —the virtual disappearance of unskilled (common labor) jobs.

—the impact of automation and the flow process industries on production, on jobs, and on people.

—the action and reaction in a free society which leaves no person content to "stay in his place."

—the realization that knowledge is the key to a better life—not just for the few, but for the many.

—an awareness of the fact that if "only the educated are free," then all the free must be educated to a maximum of their capabilities.

—a manpower shortage in professional categories.

—the realization that a "disaster gap" is opening up between those of our citizens with advanced education and those with little education.

—the urgent need for millions who can both think and do—and the gradual disappearance of a bi-polar society in which an elite few did all the thinking and the rest did all the work.

From factors such as these, technician manpower has emerged as the single fastest growing segment of our labor force, and all predictions are for a continuing of the growth. Establishment of a specific occupational program, however, requires more substantiation than such broad generalities. Documentation of quantitative and qualitative needs by national and local survey is a key first step. The New York State study of technical manpower* in which many of the faculty of the community colleges participated a few years ago was a milestone both in its methodology and in its results.

Community college occupational curriculums are distressingly similar in pattern wherever they are found, although I will mention some innovative approaches later. Reason would suggest curriculums with a great deal of flexibility, in part to take into account individual differences in learning rates and learning styles, but also to make provision for future horizontal and vertical mobility for graduates. This seldom seems the case. The efforts of professional groups, accrediting associations, state agencies, and, significantly, of the faculty, itself, tend in the direction of rigidly prescribed courses, sequences, and requirements.

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*The State Education Department and State University of New York, *Technical Manpower in New York State* (New York: New York State Department of Labor, Dec. 1964). (Editor's note.)

The development of four-year technologies, regardless of their merit, or lack of it as occupational preparation, seems another potential "standardizing" influence.

One of the most progressive influences recently unleashed on occupational education has been that of the scientific fraternity. The American Association for the Advancement of Science and several of the National Science Foundation-supported commissions have recently "discovered" the two-year college and, in particular, technical education. Substantial activities are underway, especially in physics and mathematics, to use the resources of the university in support of community college occupational education.

College would be a great place to work if it weren't for the students. Occupational programs would be highly successful if it weren't for the students. The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 were passed by the Congress without a dissenting vote. Occupational education is great for someone else's children.

With few exceptions, occupational programs have not been note-worthy in their success in attracting students or in retaining them. The students don't fit the programs; the programs don't fit the students. Present programs are failing to meet the needs of significant groups of potential students. There has been little success, although I know of attempts currently underway in some cities, to provide a smooth flow for vocational high school students into and thru occupational programs in the community college.

One problem that has been particularly severe is the lack of interest, and, hence, of success of occupational students in general education courses. I yield to no one in my conviction that the community college has an obligation to make a contribution to the general education of each student. I will not accept, however, that the only way to accomplish that objective is by a set prescription of standard liberal arts courses.

Most classroom instruction in occupational programs follows fairly closely the pattern of the informal lecture. Although there has been substantial development of good audio-visual supplements, and some development of programmed materials, there is comparatively little good use of these materials, and almost no use of individualized instructional methods. One drawback is the lack of a good communication channel for the publication of effective methods.

Reports have it that there is a dire shortage of qualified faculty for occupational programs. This likely is so, in part, particularly in some of the more esoteric fields. This is probably reinforced when selection or promotion criteria are heavily weighted in favor of advanced degrees. The alternatives are seldom well received. We are hesitant or incapable of defining and measuring good teaching, and reluctant to reward it.

The probability of finding well-equipped laboratories and shops for occupational education in community colleges is much greater now than it was twenty years ago. Every community college in Iowa has at least one spectromagneto oscillomanometer. Now that I'm watching the public purse, I'm not sure this is all good. I wonder if we might not get more mileage from industry-education equipment sharing plans.

I guess that brings us to money. We're immeasurably better off now in every way, financially, than we were when I started in New York. Occupational education does at least as well as the academic portion of the community college. In some states, the community colleges get the short end of the stick vis-à-vis the high schools in receipt of federal vocational funds. However, I hear loud and clear that state and local money for education is going to get tight, and, simultaneously, there is going to be a big demand for accountability.

Some occupational education faculty are almost paranoic with the fear that the only opportunity they will ever have to impart their wisdom to students is in that brief two-year period of college. This is, of course, nonsense. There is reasonable evidence to anticipate that technically trained students will have to renew and update their knowledge periodically, usually via formal instruction. Offering updating courses for their own technical graduates provides colleges the opportunity to simultaneously offer varied upgrading and retraining courses for other technicians. Many community colleges are establishing successful activities of this sort.

One of the problems that technical faculty face is their own periodic revitalization. It's very easy to lie in a comfortable rut and never learn what's going on out in that great big world. There are now, however, a number of publications and other services, emanating from the government, trade and professional associations, the universities, and other agencies that provide resources for the tired and

sometimes frustrated teacher. The Occupational Education Project of the American Association of Junior Colleges has done a fine job by providing news of occupational education in its Bulletin,* identifying and orienting consultants in workshops, publishing curriculum guides and other pertinent materials, and conducting regional conferences. Much of this activity is readily available to the interested instructor.**

The most common organizational pattern for the administration of occupational education in the community college is that of a separate division, headed by a Dean. The division may have subdivisions or departments. This pattern is sometimes dictated by the requirements of a state vocational education agency in order that the institution might be eligible for federal funds.

A superior pattern exists in a few institutions where all instruction is grouped into discipline-based divisions (e.g., engineering and related technologies; business administration and related occupational programs). The division is responsible for all instruction—transfer, occupational, continuing education. With good leadership, this structure precludes splitting of the college into segments and can provide a good balance of programs among the areas.

Probably the crucial problem in occupational education is that of evaluation. There are many uses of accrediting procedures, advisory committees, and follow-up studies. Most are superficial; some dishonest. Both because of external pressure to which I have alluded, and hopefully also by internal pressure, there is a need to know what learning takes place; how it is influenced by changes in the curriculum, method, and instructor; what it costs; and what it is worth. There is little evidence of much serious study along these lines.

I have tried to touch briefly on several aspects of occupational education in the community college as it exists today. You have been served a thin layer of facts heavily coated with the flour of my opinions. Finally, I would like to suggest, for at least some of these aspects, what may happen in the next decade, and what occupational education in the community college will look like by 1980.

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*_Occupation Education Bulletin_ (Editor's note.)

**Kenneth G. Skaggs is Coordinator of the AAJC Occupational Education Project. His office is at AAJC, 1315 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. (Editor's note.)

The main assumption is that there will be no catastrophe in our economic, political, or social life.

Community colleges will continue to grow in number in the next decade at approximately the same rate as in the past five years—i.e., there will be a net increase of approximately 50 new institutions per year. Thus, the present 1000 institutions will become 1500 by 1980; virtually all the growth will be in the public sector. After 1980, the rate of growth of new institutions should decrease.

The organizational pattern will be predominantly at a local level, the independent college district, and remaining ties with K-12 systems will dissolve. In populous counties, there will be multiple campuses with a central administration. The New York City pattern of operation within a university will not be duplicated in many places, and may be altered there.

State plans and state systems for two-year colleges will become extensive. State bureaucracies will grow. An increasing share of financial support will come from the state, and with the support will come more control. Federal funding will also increase, but more likely in categorized rather than in general support. This will also result in more control.

Faculty and student militancy will act as counter-influences to any centralization of decision making. The lot of a college president will continue not to be a very happy one.

Enrollments in community colleges will continue to grow: a conservative estimate is a net growth of 10% per year, resulting in a doubling of two-year college enrollments by the end of the decade. The growth will result largely from an increased proportion of the population attending college, and simultaneously will result in a larger proportion of those students in institutions of higher education attending community colleges.

Enrollment will increase in all community college programs but the sharpest growth will take place in occupational programs. At the same time, continuing education will increase substantially.

The development of baccalaureate programs in the technologies and curriculum and career ladders associated with many occupations will tend to blur the lines of distinction between occupational and transfer curriculums; students will not be ridigly thus categorized.

Most of the present technician level occupations will continue to grow, and at a substantially higher rate than for other occupational groups. There will be need for more nurses, secretaries, policemen, electronic technicians, computer programmers, and the like. Many of the emergent middle manpower occupations will become well-established, particularly in the fields of business and public service. New occupations, for which there is no formal training today will often look to the community college as a manpower source.

Many curriculum concepts that have been talked about for years, and that have had only meager implementation, will become important. Curriculum and career ladders will develop in most occupational fields. A pattern of attendance involving successive periods of study and work will be common. The individual will attend college for a year or two, and be prepared then to work for three to five years; he will then return to formal schooling for another year or two, followed by another work period at a higher level of responsibility. This may be repeated a number of additional times. However, a good bit of the latter education will be on a part-time rather than a full-time basis.

An alternate route for many students will be work-study arrangements. The time periods may be a week, a month, or a semester. The work periods, however, will be closely articulated with the study; the faculty will have some control of the work experience, and will thereby establish much closer liaison with employing groups.

The proliferation of occupations and of curriculums could force students into early, perhaps premature, career decisions, and with expensive proliferation of courses, could become administrative headaches; expect that there will develop core curriculums with common first semesters or first years for a cluster of jobs that can effectively postpone the need for specific career decisions. At the same time, there will simultaneously exist in the same college, specialized, "express" curriculums for many occupations; the student will have a choice of the route.

The distinction between the general education and occupational aspects of the curriculum will lessen, and there will be substantial efforts toward an integrated curriculum incorporating both. This trend will be particularly significant in the high school, but it will affect the college.

Since the emphasis in the growth of community college education and the rationale for it is, and will be, reaching more and other students, the methods and the materials of instruction will undergo sharp examination and considerable change. Nevertheless, the conventional and current approaches will substantially continue in part. Some few institutions will establish elaborate hardware systems, but computer-assisted or computer-managed instruction will not be significant in the community college by 1980.

The change, rather, will be built upon an understanding that individuals differ in their rate and style of learning, as well as in the amount of prior learning that they have obtained. This will result in substantial tutorial approaches, the use of programmed instruction, multiple methods of instruction within a course, and the development of units of instruction as contrasted to courses. Proficiency and achievement will be measured more by examination than by course completion.

I have tried to describe for you some of the developments that I anticipate. I've tried, consciously, to avoid placing value judgments on these changes, although, I suspect that, subconsciously, my prejudices shine through.

Finally, I believe, that the real measure of what happens—the learning that takes place—will be a function of faculty-student interactions in the classroom. The success, then, is dependent upon the competency, the interest, and the enthusiasm of the individual teacher. To me, involvement in this kind of education has been continuously exciting and satisfying. I invite each of you to share in the same joys.

STATEWIDE PLANNING FOR DELIVERY OF HUMAN AND HEALTH SERVICES*

S. V. Martorana

I feel indeed honored and privileged to be able to join with you in this third annual Penn State conference on postsecondary occupational education. In this era of rapid change, especially in education, any time an effort can be maintained for two years in a row, you can make claim to having established a new tradition. Since this conference in Pennsylvania is now in its third year, I suppose we should refer to it as a long-standing tradition. In all seriousness, all of you associated with Dr. Angelo Gillie in establishing and maintaining this annual event are to be congratulated. This conference gives persons in positions of leadership in education, not only in Pennsylvania but throughout the northeast, a badly needed opportunity to give serious study and recognition in depth to an area of postsecondary education that is increasing daily in magnitude of enrollment, in the complexity of problems it faces, and in the importance of its potential for service to our society.

Let me set you at ease right from the start about my qualifications (or lack thereof) for appearing as your speaker today. I am not an expert in "human and health services" in general nor in any one of these fields of work in particular. So if you came prepared to hear and learn from a scholarly treatise on the technical problems of perfecting a complete delivery system of these services with high quality performance, you are bound to be disappointed. I am, however, somewhat experienced in the business of statewide and regional planning in higher education and in the establishment and operation of colleges and universities, especially two-year community and junior colleges.

It is in this context that I have organized the thoughts which I should like to share with you today. I must confess and alert you

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that they are not comfortable thoughts. Rather, they are somewhat disturbing to me as an official who carries in your neighboring state to the north some responsibility for bringing order and direction without conflict, broadened services without confusion of institutional purposes, and general expansion of post-high school institutions without increased costs. I am sharing these thoughts with you, not to burden you with the troublesome problems others face, but to seek a broader wisdom in their solution. I believe that these problems and concerns are general throughout the nation and not specific to New York State. Your deliberations at this conference and your later deliberations, studies, and program innovations on your home bases, therefore, may well provide the answers we are all seeking to the several tough questions we face in developing adequate and effective human and health care services today.

The several concerns in this area relate broadly to education for the human and health services at several levels—high school through university. Within this general applicability, however, you are asked to focus on the place and role of the two-year college by whatever name it may be called—community college, junior college, technical institute, area vocational school, etc. In my view, these are all manifestations of the same general educational phenomenon, which for the purposes of this presentation will be referred to generically as the two-year community college.

Eight Broad Concerns

In one way or another, all of us are involved and responsible for statewide planning for more effective delivery of human and health services. Whether one operates within the context of a single institution and is concerned primarily with its curriculum, services, and student clientele, or whether one is dealing with a multicampus college or university or a state system of higher education, all of us today must realize the increasing interrelatedness of institutions and operations in higher education. The day of the isolated faculty and administration, operating unilaterally in setting the objectives and program of their college or university, is gone. Many forces are actively pushing educational institutions to examine their activities in consort and from the perspective of a statewide system. Not only is this true with respect to their involvement in providing human and health

care services, but this applies to all aspects of institutional services and operations.

This being so, your attention should be called to eight concerns which, in my judgment, are creating complications in our pursuit to develop greater understanding of what our colleges can and should do and how they ought to proceed toward their goals in human and health service education.

First, there is the wedding of two notions, that of education and training of practitioners in fields of human and health care, with that of practice in the actual delivery of human and health care services. The proposition seems to be that all education and training of human and health care personnel must necessarily take place only where there can be a close conjunction with the practice of these services. Carried to this extreme, the proposition poses some real questions that appear hard to answer. For example, should social workers be trained only in comprehensive health science centers where there are also schools of medicine, dentistry, allied health, and others? What about programs in selected fields, like the associate degree, or technical nursing and x-ray technology, and others, that community colleges have developed to high quality in most cases in places quite distant from comprehensive health service centers? Do we dispense with the kind of thinking suggested by Delhi Agricultural and Technical College, a two-year college in the relatively sparsely settled area of south central New York? Delhi is proposing that it provide students with a year or year-and-a-half of the basic sciences at its campus and then have the students spend a year, or semester and summer, in concentrated specialized study and clinical experience at an urban location where one of the state university medical centers is located.

Please do not misunderstand my purpose in presenting this concern. It is not to suggest that human and health care practitioners can be trained well without good, practical, clinical experience in their preparatory programs. To attempt this would be folly indeed. The concern is that the call to educate and train practitioners to become part of and to value their being a part of a "health services delivery team" can lead to the conclusion that unless a teaching-learning situation can be developed where *all* members of the "team" are trained at the same place, *no* member of the "team" can be educated and

trained. My own view is that the success already recorded by community colleges in training some, but obviously not all members of the "team," suggests the fallacy of the proposition, if carried too far.

The second concern is really an extension of the first: it is the need for a sharper clarification of what is meant by "Area Health Education Centers." As is likely well known to this audience, for some time the administration in Washington has advocated legislative authority to establish a series of Area Health Education Centers, which has led to new types of linkages in our educational systems. The concept of such centers was promoted by the recent report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. According to a statement included in a paper presented by Dr. Thomas D. Dublin, Chief, Program Evaluation Staff, Bureau of Health Manpower Education, National Institutes of Health, in June 1971, the purposes of Area Health Education Centers are to ". . . permit targeted attacks on one of the nation's major health manpower problems, namely, the problem of increasing personnel in underserved inner-city and rural areas. An AHEC would link more firmly educational institutions with health service organizations, including community hospitals, to train needed health personnel, particularly for those underserved areas."

He went on in his paper to point out that they viewed an AHEC as a "new way of organizing things," and then stated four more specific functions for the centers as follows:

> It would be established primarily to conduct educational programs. Specifically, it would provide continuing education for area practitioners, residency training in primary care, undergraduate education in one or more health disciplines, and training of personnel as health-care teams.
>
> Secondly, an AHEC would aid educational and health-care institutions develop and expand their facilities and capabilities for the training of health personnel. This would include technical aid to institutions offering preprofessional education required for admission to health occupation courses.
>
> Thirdly, the consortia of educational and service institutions comprising an AHEC would provide ambulatory and inpatient medical services and act as a referral center for other patient-care resources in an area.

> Fourthly, an AHEC would foster and assist in the manpower palnning and implementation of effective health-care delivery systems for an area.

Finally, I should note for your attention that Dr. Dublin stated that "Most AHEC's would directly involve one or more medical schools but this, too, would not be a necessary requirement." In this connection, he emphasized that the NIH projections of area health educational centers were less restrictive than the Carnegie Commission proposal that such centers be "captive" satellites of university health science centers. He went on to make this statement which presents much food for thought for all of you who are interested in playing an active role in developing a truly statewide plan for delivery of human and health services. He said:

> We believe that medical schools have much to gain from these centers, and where appropriate they should take the initiative in getting them launched and invest their strength in maintaining their operation on a high level of educational excellence. On the other hand, we believe also that there is room for local community-centered initiative which can and will turn to one or more university health science centers drawing them into the planning and operational bases of the AHECs as truly cooperative enterprises.

It is not clear where this leaves the community colleges as agencies that are ready, willing, and able to offer quality programs to train workers through the technician level to be part of the human and health services delivery team. You would be well advised, however, to establish early working rapport with any so-called "lead agency" in your locality or region within a state, such agencies being "any group capable of setting up and operating an AHEC with the aid of federal finances." Indeed, in some areas, particularly rural ones, it does not seem inconceivable that a community college could well be such a "lead agency."

At any rate, if a pattern of regionalized Area Health Education Centers is to be developed, it seems obvious that, not only will all available institutional programs and services be taken into account, but that this will be done in a way that maximizes the special educational commitments and capabilities that each cooperating institution can bring to the centers. Thus, two-year community colleges, four-year colleges, and university graduate centers and professional schools

will be associated with each other and with related noneducational community health service agencies to produce a complete capacity for education and training with a minimum of costs and commitment of scarce human and material resources.

This takes me to my third concern: the challenge of reconciling our needs to plan a coherent, efficient, and economical structure and procedure to train human and health service personnel and at the same time to plan comparably to meet other educational demands of the society. Regional planning within states seems to be the order of the day. It is happening in California, Texas, Michigan, and in a long list of other states. In New York, it is literally the "order of the day," for last February, Governor Rockefeller issued an executive order calling on all agencies in charge of state programs and services to base their future long-range plans on a regional division of the state developed by the Office of Regional Services. The State University of New York, whose long-range plans for the locally controlled community colleges must be formulated within a statewide master plan, and the Board of Regents and the State Education Department, where all educational planning is coordinated, are obligated to adhere to this gubernatorial directive.

Now the big question of obvious concern to you participants in this conference is this: How do we go about tying together in some rational way the great push toward regional planning of education, training, and delivery of human and health-care services with the strengthening push to put all governmental projections and decision making on a regional and statewide basis? Do we ask the planners in other areas of social and economic concern in a state—the highway planners, the community development planners, the housing planners, etc.—to adjust their designs to our premises and objectives? Or do we adjust what is going on in the human and health services fields to the outcomes of their deliberations? Is an early getting-together of all planning interests—local, regional, statewide—another and wiser alternative?

Let me illustrate the complexities that seem to be set in motion under present approaches to regional planning by referring to just one area in New York State. The public and private colleges in the area around Rochester have been working together in a consortium arrangement for some ten years. The group of institutions includes the University of Rochester, which operates a medical

school; several four-year liberal arts colleges, some public, some privately controlled; and Monroe Community College, which is sponsored by Monroe County where the city of Rochester is located. Last year, this consortium of institutions went to and received a charter from the Regents to authorize them to work even more closely toward mutually desired goals.

Then, very early this year, quite independently of the consortium of higher educational institutions (although with some communication with it), the Genesee Region Educational Alliance for Health Personnel, Inc. was founded. The geographic reach of the Alliance covers ten counties and overlaps quite completely the area handled by the collegiate consortium. As of March 1, 1971, thirty-seven member organizations had paid dues to the Alliance and partial staffing of its program had been provided by the Commonwealth Fund. You will be interested in the following excerpts from the proposal on which the Alliance was founded.

Objectives

1. To develop short- and long-range plans for meeting the educational needs for health manpower in the Genesee Region, with provision for periodic review.
2. To disseminate in the health education field the latest advances in teaching techniques.
3. To encourage the coordination of curricula at one level with those at higher levels so as to provide steps toward the creation of career ladders in health by eliminating needless repetition of requirements.
4. To encourage each member institution to develop and expand programs which will make the best possible use of its particular strengths.
5. To encourage member institutions to share faculties, facilities, and other resources in order to achieve economies and expand educational opportunities.
6. To encourage and assist experimental and demonstration efforts in shortening or making more effective the training of existing categories of health manpower as well as in the addition of new categories of health personnel.

7. To encourage improved patterns for use of clinical and other resources for student learning experiences.
8. To cooperate with existing professional and educational groups in obtaining such information, program concepts, and program goals as will assist in achieving the above purpose and objectives.

Member Organizations

All organizations in the region, providing formal education in the health care field as well as those offering opportunities for practical educational experience, will be invited to membership in the Genesee Region Educational Alliance for Health Personnel. These will include colleges, universities, hospitals, nursing homes, homes for the aged, high schools, and vocational schools as well as other health service organizations providing field training opportunities for students in health careers. Since membership in the Alliance will constitute a commitment by each member organization to regional coordination of its educational and related programs, approval by its governing authority will be necessary.

Autonomy of the New Organization

The Genesee Region Educational Alliance for Health Personnel will be autonomous to assure maximum freedom of speech and action. Liaison will be maintained with other organizations who may help the Alliance. For example, the Chairman of the Manpower Committee of the Genesee Region Health Planning Council might be a member of the Alliance Board.

Now, under the governor's executive order which I have already mentioned, the same Rochester-Monroe-Genesee Region is under examination by the State University of New York, the Regents, and the State Education Department in terms of the work they need to do in developing their 1972 master plans.

Again the question must be asked: How can and will all of this planning effort be pulled together, especially when the autonomy of some is so emphatically stated as in the case of the Genesee Alliance? What are the implications for the possible emergence of an even greater insistence at a higher level of state government that communication among planning agencies be developed and maintained?

What will ultimately come from the interaction of these factors and federal governmental programs with their typical requirements that requests for funds be based on regional and statewide plans?

In order that a duly recognized role be given to post-secondary institutions (like community colleges) in the search for programmatic answers to questions like these, it is imperative that persons in responsible positions in these institutions seek a leadership role. That this can be done is being evidenced in many ways. This conference is one. Another is the kind of work being done by persons like Mrs. Phyllis Higley, Acting Chairman of the Department of Allied Health Teacher Preparation at the School of Allied Health at the State University of New York at Buffalo, and Mr. Robert Love, Chairman of the Division of Health Technologies, at the State University of New York Agricultural and Technical College at Alfred. Mrs. Higley is now in the final stages of a significant study of how decision makers in two- and four-year colleges that are involved in developing a coordinated allied health program of studies in western New York exchange information and formulate offerings that build on institutional strengths and are mutually reinforcing. The study is moving forward with the endorsement of the Office of the Vice-Chancellor for Two-Year Colleges and the support of the University School of Allied Health. Mr. Love was a key figure in the formation of a statewide association of faculty involved in allied health in the two-year colleges. This association is giving its attention to means for perfecting statewide and regional program development with maximum coordination. Mr. Love is also a member of the advisory committee which is helping to guide Mrs. Higley's study.

The fourth concern we need to examine very closely is the "state of the art" in providing information about health manpower needs at local, state, and federal levels. Without sound, reliable data on manpower requirements, the educational planning and curriculum development proceed as if on a base of quicksand. We need at least two types of data to quickly identify new developments and emerging trends in career development in human and health service fields. One type is the straight statistical reports and analyses of job types that are needed to deliver adequate services to the society—data as to what personnel is needed, in what numbers, how fast. The other is information regarding the education and experience each worker in

human and health services should complete before he is permitted to seek initial employment as a practitioner in his field.

To my knowledge, neither of these two types of basic planning and decision making data is available in sufficient quantity and depth of analysis to generate strong confidence in our regional and statewide program plans. The available information is quite murky and ambiguous even on the local level and, therefore, even individual institutional planning, that which is closest to local community needs, is carried on with much trembling and fear at heart.

These negative observations are not new. Awareness that this was the case prompted the Bureau of Health Manpower Education of the National Institutes of Health over a year ago to group its data-gathering and analysis operations into a new division, the Division of Manpower Intelligence. It is expected to serve as the focal point for developing, reporting, and interpreting all health manpower data in the federal government. If it achieves this objective, we in the field will be helped tremendously.

Even if adequate information is made available with respect to national needs and trends, however, there will still remain the need to have comparable information concerning the health and human services personnel requirements to meet state and local needs. As a general rule, it is lacking, even in states which take great pride in the advance status and level of sophistication reached by their data-gathering agencies. Under a grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity, New York was one of six states helped last year to take a closer look at the ways in which community colleges—individually, regionally, and as statewide systems—were marshalling their resources and programs to provide a better attack on poverty. As you would expect, one of the subject fields examined was that of health-care needs and the adequacy and availability of programs to train personnel to be sensitive and able to care for them. After a great deal of searching through information—compiled by state agencies such as the Departments of Labor, Education, Health, Mental Hygiene, and Commerce, our study staff had to conclude that already-compiled information on the subject was simply not at hand. The effort, however, did disclose the fact that some census-type information was being taken on persons seeking employment. We used this as a point of departure for projecting an expanded data bank on this group of ob-

viously economically deprived personnel which included some indications of health-care needs.

My examination of the literature in preparation for this paper suggests a conclusion that there are now some 150 different career fields which offer opportunities for specialization in allied health. As one person, actively engaged in the attempt to relate meaningfully the emergence of new fields of allied health to available data on manpower needs and employment practices recently observed, I see a "plethora of new health careers," but she also emphasized that they do not match the indications of need from the actual world of work as well as they might.[1] Unless this condition is rectified very quickly there could soon be a real danger of preparing persons for fields of work that do not exist in the local human and health services institutions and agencies.

In this connection, this conference may well wish to deliberate during its later sessions on the present state of understanding of the so-called "career ladder." Although people generally agree with the concept of a career-ladder approach to helping individuals develop personal and economic upward mobility, actual examples of career fields where the concept is operational are hard to find.

Moreover, the concept itself is still in the process of definition. Most commonly it suggests a step-by-step progression of jobs in which each job provides a foundation of required skills, understandings, and performance responsibilities upon which the next higher and broader set of duties rests—with a comparable hierarchical expectation of education and training for each job on the ladder. Usually the concept also implies that once started on the ladder, the individual must aspire to the top rung, or admit to being either incompetent or unambitious.

Again I must refer to Robert Love in presenting some reservations concerning this concept and its relation to both the substance of education and training for human and health services and the quantitative aspects of manpower—the two types of data I have indicated as essential to good planning in this area. Speaking before a confer-

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[1]Shirley J. Taylor, Planning Associate, Areawide and Local Planning for Health Action, Inc., Regional Comprehensive Health Planning Agency, Syracuse, New York (Speech to State University of New York Conference on Allied Health Professions, September 16, 1971).

ence of allied health educators, Love offered these three observations on the career-ladder concept as cautions that it be kept as a positive force in our educational thinking and not be permitted to become another negative constraint. He indicated first that a greater importance should be attached to the development of "occupational competence" at each level of the career field rather than to the coordination of the education, training, and work experience at one level with those requisite for effective service at the next level. In other words, he was pleading for safeguards against the possible sacrifice of sound job entry preparation for the possible progression of the individual worker to the next upward job title. Second, he emphasized that the interest in developing a sound career-ladder design in a field should not cause developers of new curricula and related instructional content to be less flexible and innovative than they otherwise might be if they were concerned solely with the individual student and his employability. Finally, he stressed that the career ladder should be viewed not so much as a straight ladder on which, once placed, the climber must either continue upward or fall off, but rather as a "staircase" from which the individual has a full opportunity to step off at desired floor with valid and appropriate awards and labels for his achievement, including potential for service at the particular level of his choice.[2] All three observations are well worth your considered study and thought.

The fifth concern basic to our efforts today is one which I shall touch upon only briefly, for I frankly do not see much that can be done about it. Perhaps your deliberations can provide some answers that can be constructively used in our continuing planning efforts. I refer to the growing bureaucracy at the federal governmental level. Mr. Thomas Hatch, Director, Division of Allied Health Professions, Bureau of Health Manpower Education, National Institutes of Health, reports that there are now forty-six federal agencies involved in over 125 programs touching on health training and that collectively these programs are handling about a billion dollars of federal funds.

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[2] Robert L. Love, Chairman, Health Technologies Division, SUNY Agricultural and Technical College, Alfred, N. Y. (Speech at State University Conference on Allied Health Professions, September 16, 1971).

Without a doubt, the policies and operational regulations of these agencies, as they make federal dollars available to local and state institutions, will affect the planning and general behavior of these institutions. I cannot understand, however, how responsible college and state level educational planners can relate their efforts to the widely varied intents and procedural requirements of nearly fifty different federal agencies in developing a sane and coherent local, regional, and statewide delivery system of education and training for human and health services. Perhaps the soundest approach to suggest is that spokesmen for individual colleges and for statewide systems join together in impressing upon the Congress and the executive agencies of the federal government the need for rapid acceleration of some efforts now underway to accomplish some interagency and interprogram coordination at the federal level itself. Federal guidelines to operating local and state institutions could then perhaps serve a more positively reinforcing influence on our planning at the local and state levels than is now the case.

The five concerns in statewide planning which have been discussed thus far have, in a sense, asked you to look from your institutions outward, to be sensitive to and preparing responses in statewide planning to forces that are more or less outside your control as participant in the planning process. The next three matters that I should like to present for your consideration as planners in human and health services suggest a more inward look. These are, in my judgment, as forceful and important factors to be remembered in the planning process as those already covered. They are included in this paper, because I believe very deeply that unless our plans take them into account sharply and seriously much of the planning energy will come to naught.

The first of these, and the sixth in the total list of concerns, is the need to be concerned with the recruitment of students for the human and health service careers. I know very well that many of these careers currently have a glamour appeal and attract students in greater numbers than there are placed in the programs. Nonetheless, this "open marketplace" approach seems both inconsistent with the whole idea of a well-planned organized educational enterprise and unreliable in its potential results. It would appear that a much sounder approach to effective statewide planning would be to make

student awareness and interest in the several human and health service career fields a fundamental and integral part of the plan.

Dr. Geoffrey W. Esty is one writer who doubts that currently used techniques will furnish enough new recruits to health service manpower to meet the nation's needs. Writing in the *Journal of School Health*, he says:

> Somehow, we must now make every effort to explore and analyze those educational processes in the elementary and particularly in high schools, which will render young people susceptible to entering health careers in the face of intense recruitment for other important fields.

And he goes on to observe:

> Unless health education is experientially oriented and relevant to individual needs, freely expressed, one can hardly expect the student to become motivated to enter into one of the health careers. In any event, the former luster accompanying the professional health fields can hardly be expected to compensate for the additional expense and training time involved, especially when starting wages or salaries are so frequently lower than equivalent training and education in other fields.[3]

Whether or not one agrees with the solution he proposes in his article, it must be granted that Dr. Esty asks some important questions. In response, one suggestion that may be worthy of serious study among community college curriculum planners and statewide planners for the human and health services is that the problems of public and preventive health be incorporated into the general education curriculum content in these colleges.

Several reasons could be advanced in support of this suggestion. First, public and preventive health is, indeed, one of the major social problems of our day and thus merits inclusion in any program of general education which purports to be relevant to the times. Second, the exposure of a wide number of students to the issues surrounding health care could become an effective mechanism for recruiting more students in the health careers by awakening their

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[3]Geoffrey W. Esty, "Health Education in Our Schools and the Helath Manpower Shortage," *The Journal of School Health* 40 (January 1970): 11.

interests and initiating new understanding. The community colleges are a proven agency for recruiting students to career fields through their counseling and guidance services. The opportunity they have to do this through development of curriculum and instructional themes in their general education programs, along with comparable efforts toward student orientation to these fields made earlier at high school levels, however, is as yet generally underperceived and underdeveloped. Statewide planning attention, therefore, may be well advised to turn its attention away from the current overwhelming concern about "articulation" between two- and four-year programs in both liberal arts and career fields toward a greater attention to the use of general education programs to enrich a student's education and to help him to find a lifework.

My next concern asks you to examine the actions we are planning in response to the wave of credentialism that is threatening to engulf us. Surely this is not a matter that you as members of faculty or administration of individual colleges or as responsible officials of state agencies can comfortably leave to outside interests. The attention the subject is already attracting elsewhere should alert us to the seriousness of the potential impact of expanding credentialism. The Newman Study identifies the impact of credentialism and licensure as one of the most serious threats to flexibility and adoption of creative educational practices in all higher education. It is a particular threat to the traditional freedom of programming for the service characteristic of the community college. The Association of Schools of Allied Health sensed the problem so directly that it sought the help of the Commonwealth Fund, and together they are now conducting a study of programmatic accreditation of health service career training programs and of credentialism's impact on the programs these institutions are offering. The study, now underway, is being directed by Dr. William Selden, former Executive Director of the National Commission of Accrediting.

Most states already have some officially identified mechanism for assuring the reasonable quality of the programs offered by their schools and colleges and for assuring the entry qualifications of persons practicing in human and health service fields. Moreover, most colleges readily accept and seek the accreditation of the national regional accrediting agency that serves the region in which the college is located. With these two existing safeguards for quality of per-

formance and capability of graduates from career programs, the need for additional safeguards is to be questioned. The questions may be better asked as a part of the general statewide planning for a complete delivery of education and training for these fields than in the examination of the fields as they are developed one by one in the implementation of the statewide plan after it is adopted.

My eighth and final concern is certainly not the least in the importance I attach to it. It is the need to recognize and provide for an ample supply of competent faculty to staff the programs proposed in a statewide plan for human and health-care services. Without a corps of able and dedicated faculty members to provide sound instruction in the career fields, no statewide plan can be effectively implemented. In New York state we have had repeated instances where community colleges have been approved to offer new programs in the health career fields only to have the date of initiation of the proposed curriculum delayed because a qualified instructor could not be located.

In this problem area, there is a special necessity and opportunity for effective cooperative effort involving two-year and four-year colleges and universities operating advanced professional schools. Most of the demand for instructors is at the community college level. In New York state, for example, the overwhelming proportion of instruction in the 126 health-related career fields is taught in the community colleges. These colleges enroll over 12,000 of the total of some 15,000 students enrolled in health related career fields. Yet the source of supply for these instructors obviously is the four-year colleges and the university centers. The need for a cooperative interinstitutional effort in recruiting, training, and placing instructors, therefore, is obvious. The joint effort must be directed not only at producing competent instructors in the required numbers. It must also provide that their competence is well balanced, assuring that they have both knowledge in their field of specialization and an attitude and understanding of the community college and the student it serves that befits faculty in these institutions.

Fortunately, there is an exemplary program in at least one place in New York state that I can suggest to you as a model. It is the Community College Health Careers Instructor Training Program centered at Buffalo. Here is a program that builds a service in instructor development which is interstate and nationwide in its reach

on a platform of two-year, four-year, and university level programs in health fields designed to serve western New York and in which the integrity and unique educational mission of each type of college is recognized and preserved. In this arrangement, faculty members in the community colleges serve as "clinical professors" to the instructor development programs offered in the University School of Allied Health. Members of the "health delivery team" studying at the university, including members of the faculty of the medical and dental schools, visit and provide instructional demonstrations at the surrounding community colleges in the region. It is, in short, a model that we are trying to get replicated in several other regions of the state and one that I commend for your further examination.

Conclusion: A Look to the Future

As I look back at this paper and recall that I said I would probably be raising more questions that I would answer about the process of statewide planning for human and health services education and training, I believe that I have fulfilled that prophecy. In the course of the discussion, however, I believe that you may find some observations and suggestions that can serve you well in your own planning efforts.

And on this note, I should like to conclude. Make no mistake, interinstitutional, regional, and statewide planning is here to stay. All of us would be well advised to become as knowledgeable as possible in the planning process and active in its implementation. Beyond this we must find ways to bring the various diverse subject matters of concern in the planning process, like health and human service careers, into a meaningful and integrated, more comprehensive planning effort that takes into account all post-high school education. This, in my view, is the major challenge of the day. The choice of your theme for this conference indicates your awareness of this challenge and your forward motion to meeting it. I wish you well.

STRATEGIES FOR EVALUATION OF POSTSECONDARY OCCUPATIONAL PROGRAMS*

Leland L. Medsker

As one considers the subject of appropriate strategies for the evaluation of postsecondary vocational programs, he is confronted at once by the magnitude and difficulty of the problem. The magnitude is great, due in part to the rapid growth of occupational education. In the four years from 1965 to 1969, federal subsidies to vocational programs increased from $605 million to $1.4 billion. Enrollments in the same four-year period increased 46 percent over those reported in 1964. Post-high school vocational education showed the largest increase—19 percent. The number of vocational education teachers at the postsecondary level increased by 39 percent.[1] If one adds to these figures comparable data for technical-occupational programs in community colleges and other types of postsecondary institutions that are supported entirely by local funds, the growth factor is even more astounding. There is also further documentation that their growth is occurring most rapidly at the postsecondary level. Furthermore, it is likely that growth will continue to be encouraged in high places. Representative Edith Green said in an address last summer at the annual meeting of the Education Commission of the States:

> Then in the 1970s let us adopt a new Magna Carta for the vocational and technical occupations and an educational system to enforce that recognition. In Congressional action, I predict increased financial aid to this fastest growing section—our community colleges and our technical institutes.

Sheer growth naturally implies difficulty in evaluation simply because there is so much to evaluate. But there are qualitative as well as quantitative problems in evaluation. Curriculum evaluation at any level, or pertaining to any subject, is inherently difficult and although

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[1]Data reported in *ECS Bulletin* (September 1970).

much has been written about it, a review of the literature suggests that it is the one area of education in which the least progress has been made. At first blush we might conclude that the evaluation of occupational programs would be far simpler than the assessment of academic programs, since its product can be measured more easily. However, as I shall indicate later, only minimal efforts to measure the product of occupational programs have been made. Furthermore, vocational education is a many-faceted, multidimensional effort that is not easily compartmentalized into neat packages for assessment purposes.

Perhaps to no one's surprise, a rather thorough search of the literature reveals a paucity of information about the evaluation of occupational education. We are indebted to Kaufman[2] for his comprehensive treatment of the subject in secondary schools, although he does not deal extensively with strategies. Numerous individual studies of vocational programs (mostly at the local level) are reported through the ERIC Clearinghouse for Higher Education and dissertation abstracts, but generally there is a dearth of comprehensive treatments of the subject.

As I scanned the literature and pondered the subject, I concluded that it takes a venturesome individual to discuss strategies, but nevertheless, it is a worthwhile task to undertake. I deal with the topic not as a vocational educator, but simply as one concerned with realistic educational programs in postsecondary institutions. In the remarks to follow, I first discuss, within the context of evaluative procedures in general, some of the approaches and techniques for evaluating these vocational programs. This is followed by some comments about certain problems and issues that arise in connection with such evaluation and I conclude with a few remarks concerning possible directions for the future.

You will observe that my plea is for a more thorough, systematic approach to evaluation—an approach that places primary emphasis on product instead of on process. I divulge this now so that my position is clear from the outset.

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[2] J. J. Kaufman, *et al.*, *The Preparation of Youth for Effective Occupational Utilization, The Role of the Secondary School in the Preparation of Youth for Employment* (University Park: Pennsylvania State University, 1967).

Approaches and Techniques

Let us turn first to a discussion of what appear to be the two principal approaches to the evaluation of occupational programs, namely, the *process* approach and the *product* approach. The process method is one that is largely concerned with how the program functions, including the various environmental elements that presumably determine the degree of its success. This approach would evaluate such factors as the curriculum and how it is developed, the use of advisory mechanisms, the equipment used for instructional purposes, the quality of the faculty, the methods of teaching, the process of selecting students, and the manner in which placements are made, to name only a few. The premise is that by an evaluation of program characteristics, conclusions regarding the viability of the training can be inferred.

The product approach is based on concern for the student and what the training does for him. It begins with attention to program objectives and ends with an inquiry into program outcomes, both qualitative and quantitative. It is particularly concerned with how well the program fulfills its objectives: the extent to which students persist, how they find jobs appropriate to their training, and how they perform in these jobs. Naturally, there are other overall product concerns, an important one being the extent to which the training program meets local, state, and national manpower demands.

Differences between the two approaches are readily apparent. One is descriptive, the other attempts to measure performance. One asks how it is done, the other asks how well it is done.

An obvious question is whether the two approaches are mutually exclusive. An equally obvious answer is that they are not. In fact, given the assumption that program characteristics are related to outcomes, one must deduce that both approaches are important. This is so to the extent that characteristics partially explain the level of success that a program enjoys. Thus, they constitute independent variables in accounting for various degrees of performance. This concept will be returned to later.

A much more significant question is whether either of the two approaches is more important than the other—or at least whether either should constitute the basic approach. This issue must be exam-

ined within the framework of existing concepts about educational evaluation in general. Naturally it is impossible to cover here the many emerging ideas concerning how best to evaluate educational programs. Many of them date back to the model originally advocated by Ralph Tyler in the 1930s, in which he stressed the development of educational objectives stated in operational terms so that data could be collected to determine how well the objectives are achieved. The idea subsequently was further advanced by Gagné and by many others. Writing in the Spring 1969 issue of the *Journal of Trade and Industrial Teacher Education*, J. Thomas Hastings, Director of the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation at the University of Illinois, dwelt at some length on an evaluation model developed by Stake as depicted in Figure 1. As pointed out by Hastings, the schema, while placing heavy emphasis on outcomes, also emphasizes other aspects of the educational program. The rows represent three aspects of the program. By "antecedents," it is meant those aspects of the situation that come before but are highly relevant to the instructional program under consideration. They include such things as student characteristics, the attitudes and background of faculty, and the general school environment. "Transactions" mean the operational aspects of the actual program. The "outcomes" row refers not only to student outcomes but also to such outcomes as the impact of the program on the institution itself and on its constituency. The four columns of the matrix are described as the sources of data for evaluation. "Intents" refers to expectations expressed by students, parents, employers and others. The column headed by "observations" refers to expectations gleaned from tests, interviews, and other techniques. "Standards" implies the collection of information related to expected performance levels in such matters as admissions, operational modes and final student outcomes. The final column suggests the possibility of collecting data on the value judgments and the people or groups who make them. Of this Hastings said:

> There are various value orders even where the values themselves are agreed upon as generally important. In collecting our data at any of the levels (from congressional committee through the State Department of Public Instruction to the teacher), consideration must be given to describing the kinds of judgments which are made. The question, "What kinds of groups make what kinds of judgments?" is one that we have too often left out of the evaluative process. In many

FIGURE 1

Data to be Collected*

INTENTS	OBSERVATIONS	STANDARDS	JUDGMENTS
	ANTECEDENTS		
	TRANSACTIONS		
	OUTCOMES		

*R. E. Stake, "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation," *Teachers College Record* 68 (1967): 523-540.

cases we have missed by that amount an optimal movement toward rational decision making.

I have described the Stake model as discussed by Hastings only to indicate the many variables and their interrelationships that may well be considered in the evaluative process. In fact, this is the primary value of any model regardless of its purpose.

A more simple and direct evaluation approach has been described by Robert Glaser[3] in which he suggests the following sequence of operations:

1. Outcomes of learning are specified in terms of the behavioral manifestations of competence and the conditions under which it is to be exercised.
2. Detailed diagnosis is made of the initial state of a learner coming into a particular instructional situation. This careful workup of student performance characteristics relevant to the instruction at hand is necessary to pursue further education.

[3]R. Glaser, *Evaluation of Instruction and Changing Educational Models* (Los Angeles: Center for the Study of Evaluation of Instructional Programs, University of California, 1968).

3. The immediate instructional step consists of educational alternatives adaptive to the classifications resulting from the initial student educational profiles.
4. As the student learns, his performance is monitored and continuously assessed at longer or shorter intervals appropriate to what is being taught.
5. Instruction and learning proceed in a cybernetic fashion, tracking the performance and selections of the student. Assessment and performance are interlinked, one determining the nature and requirement for the other.
6. Inherent in the system's design is its capability for improving itself. Perhaps a major defect in the implementation of educational innovations, especially in the area of individualization, has been the lack of the cumulative attainment of knowledge—on the basis of which the next innovation is better than the one that preceded it.

Despite the advocacy of such models as those just discussed, the literature confirms the fact that to date the principal emphasis has been on process rather than on product evaluation. One has only to scan the criteria used for evaluation by innumerable schools and agencies to realize this fact. Norman Harris,[4] writing in 1964, grouped a long list of important guidelines for evaluation into the following program categories: (1) meeting community needs; (2) administrative "climate" and organization; (3) guidance placement and follow-up; (4) instruction and curriculum; and (5) facilities and equipment. Even in the accreditation of vocational education this is the tendency, as John Stanavage of the North Central Association indicated at a recent meeting in Chicago when he said, "We never go into a school without trying to evaluate each program. But I would have to concede that we are looking at process and that we can't be confident of the validity of evaluation."

Implicit in Dr. Stanavage's statement and in those of many other individuals is the opinion that evaluation *should* be based more on product than process. This opinion was also expressed by Moss when he wrote:

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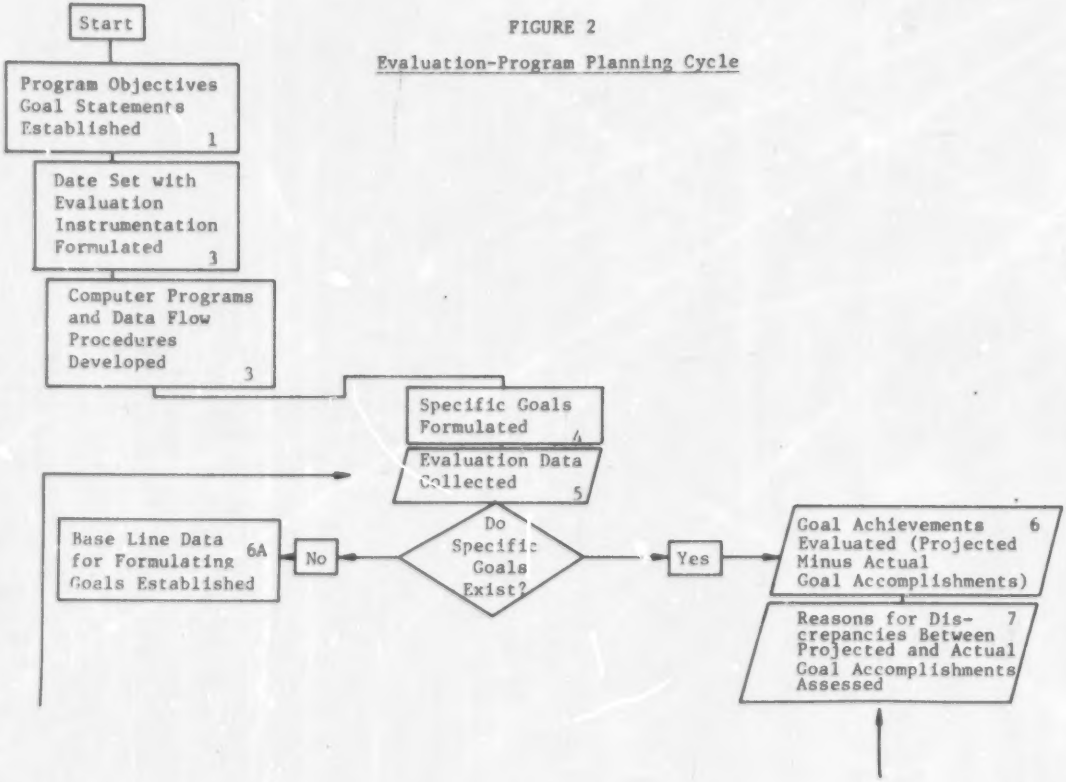
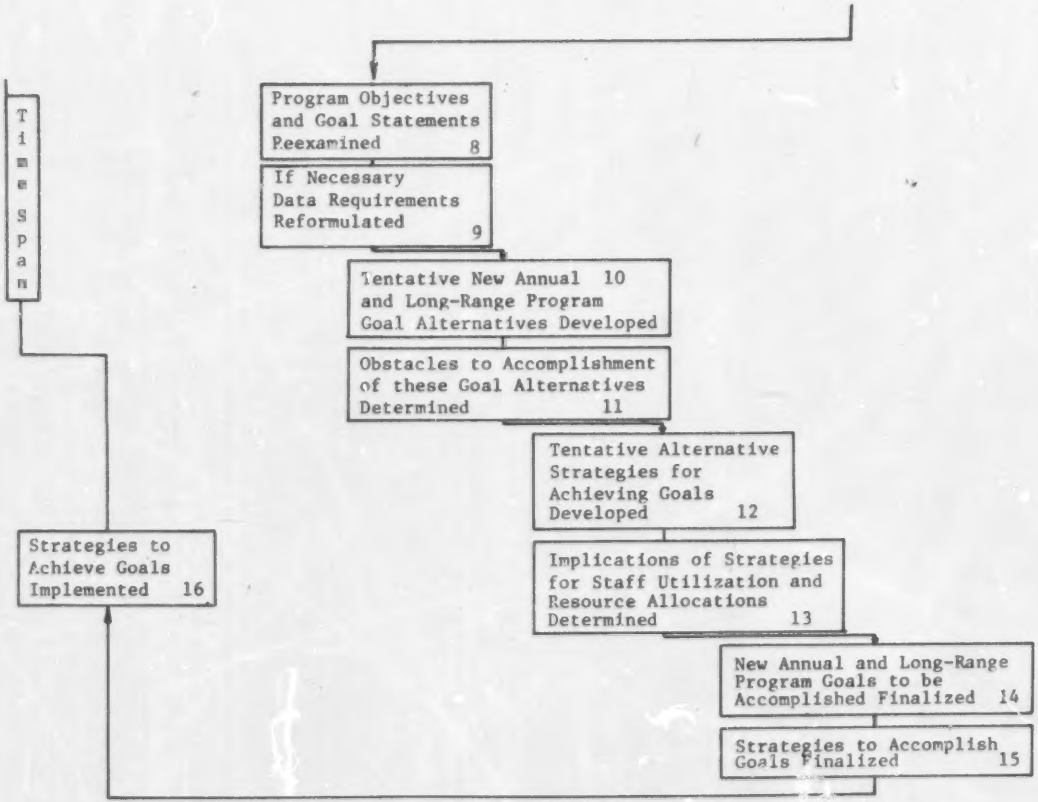
[4]N. C. Harris, *Technical Education in the Junior College* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1964).

FIGURE 2

Evaluation-Program Planning Cycle


Start
Program Objectives Goal Statements Established 1
Date Set with Evaluation Instrumentation Formulated 3
Computer Programs and Data Flow Procedures Developed 3
Specific Goals Formulated 4
Evaluation Data Collected 5
Do Specific Goals Exist?
No
Base Line Data for Formulating Goals Established 6A
Yes
Goal Achievements Evaluated (Projected Minus Actual Goal Accomplishments) 6
Reasons for Discrepancies Between Projected and Actual Goal Accomplishments Assessed 7


Time span
Program Objectives and Goal Statements Reexamined 8
If Necessary Data Requirements Reformulated 9
Tentative New Annual and Long-Range Program Goal Alternatives Developed 10
Obstacles to Accomplishment of these Goal Alternatives Determined 11
Tentative Alternative Strategies for Achieving Goals Developed 12
Implications of Strategies for Staff Utilization and Resource Allocations Determined 13
New Annual and Long-Range Program Goals to be Accomplished Finalized 14
Strategies to Accomplish Goals Finalized 15
Strategies to Achieve Goals Implemented 16

> One of the most critical aspects of program evaluation, and the one which has thus far probably received the least attention, is the identification and measurement of the program outcomes which are to serve as evaluative criteria. Everyone affected by evaluation, and that is all educators, must be concerned with developing as complete an array of relevant potential outcomes as possible for use by evaluators.[5]

Note that Moss refers to two components of evaluation: the identification of program outcomes (objectives) and the measurement of them. He later states that evaluative criteria should be in terms of outcomes instead of program characteristics and suggests several means including formative evaluation, expert and self-evaluations, follow-ups, experiments, interrupted time series, and regression analysis.

The most clear-cut conclusion to be drawn from the review of the various models outlined above is that there is need for a systems approach to the evaluation of occupational education. Perhaps more than in any other area of education—and especially at the post-secondary level where the mature student is more likely to move from training into employment—there exists the unusual possibility to establish a data collection system that sheds light on innumerable variables and aids in decision making. Both inputs and outputs can be measured, quality control can be effected, evaluation can be continuous and programs can be modified. Such a plan emphasizes the product approach but does not neglect the program approach.

A systems approach for use at the state level was developed recently by the Center for Vocational and Technical Education at Ohio State University.[6] In some respects the plan involves the use of a data-describing program as well as outcomes, although it stresses the latter.

Figure 2 (pages 190-191) portrays the substance of the plan. The fact that the evaluation program starts with the formulation of

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[5] J. Moss, Jr. *Review of Research in Vocational-Technical Teacher Education* (Minneapolis: Research Coordinating Unit in Occupational Education, 1967).

[6] *A System for State Evaluation of Vocational Education. Final Report.* Research Series No. 58, VT011 235 (The Ohio State University, 1970).

goal statements and ends with the evaluation of goal achievements should be noted. However, the process involves the reexamination of goals following the first round of evaluation and alternative strategies for achieving them.

Certain operational characteristics of the desired system are set forth as follows:

1. Information which stresses *program outcomes* rather than processes.
2. *Measurement* of the effectiveness of efforts in achieving projected program goals.
3. *Systematic feedback* of relevant evaluative information to local schools.
4. Sufficient *flexibility* to permit individual states to modify system components without impairing the integrity of the system.
5. *Articulation* with other program planning systems, including PPBS and manpower.

The group that developed the plan commented on two evaluation methods now in common use by state divisions, namely, process evaluation and all-inclusive data banks. Both were rejected in favor of a plan that would be compatible with the systems approach. The plan provides for data collection from the various types of vocational schools in the state and, as indicated above, includes data on the program characteristics in the schools and information gleaned from the follow-up of students. Those involved in the project articulated the problem of evaluation as follows:

> Although it is clear that the evaluation of program adequacy is an essential part of the assessment of a state program, it also is true that the value and effectiveness of a program can be determined only with respect to outcomes. Thus, a program which is effective for objective X may be ineffective for objective Y. A facility, a teaching staff, or a budget is appropriate, adequate, or effective only with respect to some goal. Thus, evaluation of educational program effectiveness is *meaningful* only after it is known whether educational programs served their intended purposes.

> This point is being emphasized strongly in the political and legislative arenas. Not only is federal legislation written to emphasize educational *outcomes* for specified groups of students, but education now finds itself having to compete at all governmental levels with other agencies and institutions for limited human and economic resources. Decisions by policy-making bodies regarding resource allocations are being made with increasing frequency of evidence of program effectiveness, relevance to social and economic conditions, and the degree to which programs reflect community, state and federal interests and concerns. In such an environment, evaluation methodologies which have been commonly employed in vocational education fail to provide the evidence required by policy-making bodies and must be replaced by a more effective evaluation methodology if a proper case is to be made for support.

I realize that an emphasis on the evaluation of product is not a new thought and that despite the long-term tendency of evaluators to look at program characteristics, there are many instances of attempts to find out how well the program functions in terms of performance. Examples of follow-up studies abound. My concern is that there are too few instances of planned evaluation that start with specific goals and objectives—even differentiated by targeted student groups—and then proceed step by step to systematically measure competencies developed during the program and performance on a job after placement. Included in the examination should be the relationship between manpower needs and the program as measured both by up-to-date occupational information on the one hand and the record of placements on the other. The evaluative process is a research effort that should be continuous, deliberate, and programmatic. Obviously, the evaluation program should be a cooperative effort involving faculty, administrators, and perhaps others on the staff with some one person or agency responsible for planning and executing it. Whether it be at the local or state level, it cannot be left to chance.

It seems, therefore, as if a new day in the evaluation of occupational education has dawned and that it is now incumbent on everyone involved to consider a systematic approach to the problem. One may also predict that with new methods of evaluating outcomes, and the ability to build data banks, we are closer to the day

when cost-benefit analyses can be made of our occupational training programs. Jacob Kaufman[7] has recently written on this point.

A project that should eventually yield assistance in making such analyses is the WICHE-MIS (Management Information Systems) program. It is also significant that vocational education is now one of five targeted development and research areas of the U. S. Office of Education. Beginning in fiscal year 1972 and for four years thereafter, the National Center for Educational Research and Development (NCERD) plans to fund a number of projects in program planning, management, and evaluation systems and techniques as they apply to vocational education.

Problems and Issues Pertaining to Evaluation of Occupational Education

A number of problems and issues bear on the evaluation of vocational education. The first relates to the very nature of vocational education and to the difficulties of conceptualizing it in a changing society. As a nation we have a great diversity of opinion about what occupational training really is or should be. There are disagreements as to its content and the degree of specificity that should characterize it. We vary tremendously in our ideas about the development of skills versus the development of general competencies. We differ in our thoughts on the optimum length of training programs. We worry in varying degrees about the problems of occupational obsolescence. These common concerns are relevant to this discussion in that if evaluation systems are to be devised, we have to be fairly sure of what it is we should be evaluating. Presumably, each institution is privileged to conceive the desired nature of its own program and to evaluate accordingly, but it must make sure that the evaluation strategies consider the rationale that led to its program characteristics.

A related problem centers around the difficulties in ascertaining the objectives of occupational programs. It is easy to talk about goals, but considerably more difficult to articulate them. Furthermore, there is always a question of whether occupational programs

[7] J. J. Kaufman, "Cost-Effectiveness Analysis as a Method for the Evaluation of Vocational and Technical Education," *Journal of Industrial Education* 6 (1969).

should be designed primarily to prepare workers for entry jobs or, once the individual is employed, for advancement in the world of work. To the extent that the institution makes a distinction between these two possibilities, so then must this be clear in the way objectives are stated and the evaluation strategies are planned. It is obvious that goals must be specific and complete; otherwise, they cannot be measured. Yet Glaser has said that if such outcomes as complex reasoning and open-endedness are desirable aspects of human behavior, they need to be recognized as assessable goals. And such outcomes may indeed be important even in vocational education![8]

Perhaps one of the most difficult tasks encountered in ascertaining objectives is that of articulating differences in potential outcomes among students with varying characteristics. With more frequency, the literature and the legislation pertaining to vocational education make references to targeted groups of students. We are all aware that postsecondary institutions are being called upon to accommodate greater numbers of "new" students, who are of widely varying backgrounds in respect to age, socioeconomic groups, motivations, and abilities. As a result, federal and state governments will probably increasingly insist on quite specific objectives for special targeted groups of students. To the extent that this is so, there are obvious implications for evaluation techniques.

A third problem of a different order is that of evaluating programs designed primarily for retraining purposes. If all the prognostications concerning job obsolescence come true, and if the average worker is called upon to change his way of making a living several times over the period of his gainful employment—or at least periodically to upgrade his skills—then occupational training programs will increasingly be involved with retraining as opposed to initial pre-employment training. Here the task of evaluation will be even more difficult since both the objectives and the trainees will vary greatly. Many institutions will be involved with both pre-employment and retraining, thus their system for evaluation will become more complicated.

Several references have been made here to the importance of evaluating a program in terms of how it meets manpower requirements. Related to this is the extent to which it meets other social needs, especially whether it attracts and serves a requisite number of

[8] Ibid.

students from targeted subgroups of the population. Such a criterion is becoming more important. A program may be assessed in terms of how well it serves its enrolled students; but, obviously, if students who should be enrolled are not attracted to it, a link is missing. Thus any system must take this factor into consideration as it assesses its total program.

External Evaluation

So far we have talked mostly about strategies for internal evaluation. Our discussion, however, would be grossly incomplete without mentioning external evaluation. Legislation already enacted mandates an increase in evaluation activities by state agencies responsible for federal and state funded programs. It would seem that close working relationships between state and local bodies could result in the proverbial "killing of two birds with one stone" whereby many of the data needed by the institution could be part of a state's effort to evaluate its program based on a systems approach.

Another and more complex problem related to external evaluation is found in the *accreditation* of occupational programs. Everyone concerned with occupational education at the post-high school level is familiar with the problems of accreditation. The fact that institutional eligibility for receiving federal aid for occupational programs or for serving students who are financially assisted by the federal government is based on accreditation, makes such problems as the following all that much greater:

1. The wide discrepancy in criteria used by regional associations to evaluate occupational training.
2. The fact that not all postsecondary institutions are eligible for accreditation by regional associations.
3. The growing involvement of various professional associations in the accreditation of specific occupational programs with the consequent confusion between institutional and program accreditation.

These and other problems were discussed at a meeting last spring by the Education Commission of the States, where attention was called to a need for greater flexibility in the accreditation of occupational programs and to an increasing emphasis on their results.

More than a year ago, the National Commission on Accrediting created an interim council on accreditation of occupational and specialized education. In May 1969, this council proposed that each of the regional associations establish a separate commission for the accreditation of such education. The regional associations tended to resist the suggestion, although vocational educators generally seemed to favor it. Thus, at this time, it appears that there is much yet to be accomplished before the regional associations have perfected a viable means of accrediting this segment of education.

Moreover, the controversy between the regional associations and the various professional organizations that accredit individual programs is far from settled. In a study of this problem conducted at the Berkeley Center a few years ago, we came to the conclusion that in many ways such agencies serve a useful purpose. In our final report we said:

> There exists a great need to devise a methodology which allows each to facilitate the other. Perhaps one hope lies in the concept of cooperative activity, which would give institutions the opportunity to derive the benefits of assistance and support from teams of professionals supplied by the specialized agencies, while maintaining a total institutional commitment under the supervision of peers representing the regional association.[9]

There should be ways by which institutional evaluation of vocational programs and accrediting efforts by various outside agencies can complement each other. As duplication of effort is costly in time and money, it should be the goal of all involved to work toward that end.

Possible Directions Ahead

Assuming that technical-vocational education at the postsecondary level is to remain an important element in the American educational system, we can speculate on some possible directions the evaluation of it will take in the years immediately ahead.

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[9] L. E. Messersmith and L. L. Medsker, *Accreditation of Vocational-Technical Curricula in Postsecondary Institutions* (Berkeley: Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, 1969).

As expressed and implied in these remarks thus far, there is almost certain to be a move toward highly organized systematic approaches to evaluating occupational training. To develop such a system, or to modify an existing one for local use, would seem to be an exciting venture. It would provide an opportunity to use new and modern techniques in assessing both inputs and outputs so that evaluation would be continuous and change could be based on objective data.

What are some other probable directions? For one thing, like all other facets of education, occupational training will increasingly be confronted with the concept of accountability. Despite the current overuse of the term, the emerging notion is that schools and colleges must become more responsible for fulfilling the explicit and implicit missions they undertake. The question arises as to whom accountability is owed and while, generally speaking, educational institutions are responsible to the people who support and control them, their residual or basic responsibility is to the students who attend them. Accountability in education is difficult to define but after a thorough discussion of it, Morphet[10] et al. say: "Accountability thus must now be defined as an assignable, measurable responsibilty to be fulfilled under certain conditions and within certain constraints." Since the proof of the training is in what students learn, we are likely to see a move on the part of mature students and the public to look critically at occupational training ventures that do a poor job of what they purport to do.

Such a trend could even go so far as to establish contracts with students or certain agencies to deliver . . . or else. Increasingly, this procedure is being subjected to experimentation. The area of vocational education may prove to be a likely field in which this practice will make headway, especially since so many proprietary industrial-type organizations are offering vocational training.

A possibility of a different order is that emerging manpower demands will include a new list of worker capabilities over and beyond the skills that are commonly the targets of training. This is not a new thought, of course. For years, the schools have pondered how they could develop such abstract qualities as initiative, adapt-

[10]"Evaluating Education in a Changing Society," *Emerging State Responsibilities for Education*, E. L. Morphet, ed. (1970).

ability, loyalty, inquisitiveness and many other such attributes. But the period ahead will be subject to great social change and it may be that development of the individual as a person will become as much a part of vocational training as his manual or professional skills. To the extent that this is so, evaluative techniques will need to be modified to measure more subjective outcomes. And this will not be easy.

The list of possible future directions could be expanded indefinitely. But even those we have mentioned portray the need for an imaginative approach to evaluation of the type with which we are concerned today. If, up until now, the assessment and updating of occupational training at the postsecondary level has been somewhat haphazard, a new direction is mandated by a changing society, a direction in which resource allocations are based more on demonstrated effectiveness than on subjective judgment and in which the expectations of the beneficiaries of education—both the public and the students—are reckoned with as never before.

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